DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 084 928 48 FL 004 746

AUTHOR	Augerot, James E., Ed.
TITLE	East European Linguistics Studies Project No. 3: The Development of Romanian Grammar Pamphlets.
INSTITUTION	Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, D.C.
SPONS AGENCY	Institute of International Studies (DHEW/OE), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	Jun 73
CONTRACT	OEC-0-72-1588
NOTE	347p.
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.65 HC-$13.16
DESCRIPTORS	Adult Education; Case (Grammar); Determiners (Languages); Etymology; Form Classes (Languages); *Grammar; Independent Study; Intonation; *Language Instruction; Morphology (languages); Phrase Structure; Pronouns; *Romanian; *Second Language Learning; Syntax; *Textbooks; Verbs; Vocabulary; Word Lists

ABSTRACT

This report contains 10 chapters, each of which deals with a particular Romanian grammatical category and exercises. The texts are intended for use by the continuing student with some knowledge of basic Romanian. Areas covered include determiners, intonation and stress, verb conjugation, prepostions, possessive and dative cases, pronouns, syntax, noun clauses, adverb clauses, and etymological structure. Each pamphlet contains a bibliography of further references. Two of the papers are in Romanian. (Author/DD)

FILMED FROM BEST AVAILABLE COPY

Title VI, NDEA, Sec. 602
Bureau # 2-2078

FL

ED 084928

Final Report
Contract No. OEC-0-72-1588

EAST EUROPEAN LINGUISTICS STUDIES PROJECT NO. 3: THE DEVELOPMENT OF ROMANIAN GRAMMAR PAMPHLETS

edited by

James E. Augerot

Center for Applied Linguistics
1611 North Kent Street
Arlington, Virginia 22209

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH.
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRO
DUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM
THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGIN
ATING IT POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS
STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRE
SENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

June 1973

The research reported herein was performed pursuant to a contract with the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Contractors undertaking such projects under Government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their professional judgment in the conduct of the project. Points of view or opinions stated do not, therefore, necessarily represent official Office of Education position or policy.

FL004746

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

Office of Education
Institute of International Studies

June 15, 1973

Period: May 1, 1972 to June 15, 1973

Institution: University of Washington

Title of Project: The Development of Romanian Grammar Pamphlets

Project Director: James E. Augerot

Prior to the granting of the contract for the Romanian Grammar Pamphlets, the field was surveyed to establish a priority list of the needs. The consensus was that second-year materials were of prime importance, although a reference grammar, a pair of dictionaries, a social science reader were also considered equally necessary. Among those teachers and scholars surveyed several indicated willingness to participate in projects aimed at supplying these materials. When the possibility of funding became more concrete, these scholars were again contacted for specific ideas in terms of the grammar pamphlets. The list was filtered down to ten topics and the participants identified. Each scholar then was given nine months to elaborate a grammar pamphlet aimed at the continuing student with some solid knowledge of basic Romanian. The pamphlets were to contain careful explication of the particular grammatical category and exercises. In addition, a brief bibliography was appended to each pamphlet so that the student could pursue any point that was not fully covered in the pamphlet itself.

Two of the pamphlets were left in the original Romanian with the idea that the student should begin to use Romanian sources at this point in his study.

The pamphlets were then turned over to the Editor for retyping and editing. Revisions were made for conformity in form and style. The particular theoretical approach differs widely through the pamphlets, but not to the point that any one is not readily convertible to one of the others. The emphasis is thoroughly upon the practical, on imparting the essentials in the most straightforward manner consistent with the student's assumed knowledge of English and English grammar. Familiarity with the current English-Romanian Contrastive Linguistics Project in Bucharest proved very useful in the construction of the pamphlets.

Of course, the student consumer will be the ultimate judge of the success of this approach in teaching Romanian. Local experimentation with the pamphlets leads us to believe that the method implicit in this approach is very useful. We hope to see further pamphlets produced for Romanian, as well as, for other languages. The students seem to be able to deal very handily with 25-30 pages devoted to specific, difficult points in the language they are studying, while remaining reticent about working through reference grammars that are more often designed for the competent linguist and are seldom based upon contrastive analysis of the languages involved.

The ten pamphlets arranged in the recommended order are the following:

I. SOME ROMANIAN DETERMINERS by Frederick B. Agard
II. ROMANIAN INTONATION AND STRESS by Robert L. Rankin
III. THE CONJUGATION OF THE ROMANIAN VERB by James E. Augerot
IV. PREPOSITIONS by Cornel Capuşan
V. POSSESSIVE AND DATIVE CONSTRUCTIONS IN ROMANIAN by Frederick B. Agard
VI. PRONUME ŞI FORME ENCLITICE by Anca Belchiţă Hartular
VII. PATTERNS OF SYNTAX IN ROMANIAN by Robert L. Rankin
VIII. NOUN CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN by James Algeo
IX. ADVERB CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN by James Algeo
X. STRUCTURA ETIMOLOGICĂ A VOCABULARULUI ROMÂNESC by Theodor Hristea

James E Augerot
Project Director

June 15, 1973
Date

ROMANIAN GRAMMAR PAMPHLETS

James E. Augerot, Editor

I. SOME ROMANIAN DETERMINERS

by

Frederick B. Agard

This work was developed pursuant to a contract between
the U.S. Office of Education and the Center for Applied Linguistics

(OEC-0-72-1588)

1973

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Table of Contents iii

1.0 Introduction 1

1.1 Plurals 1

1.2 Base-Types 2

1.3 Plural Endings 3

2.0 Determiners 4

2.1 Articles 5

2.11 Definite Article 5

Exercises 1-2 6

Exercise 3 7

Exercise 4 8

2.12 Alternate form of DA 8

Exercise 5 9

Exercises 6-7 10

Exercises 8-10 11

2.13 Indefinite Article 11

Exercises 11-13 12

2.14 Comparative Usage 12

2.14 Possessive Article 14

Exercises 14-15 15

Exercises 16-17 16

2.2 Demonstratives 17

Exercise 18 17

Exercises 19-20 18

Exercises 21-23 19

Exercises 24-25 20

Exercises 26-27 21

Exercises 28-30 22

Exercises 31-33 23
2.3 Interrogative Determiners 24
Exercises 34-35 25
Passage for Analysis 26
Footnotes 28
Vocabulary 31
Bibliography 34

SOME ROMANIAN DETERMINERS

1.0 The present pamphlet deals with certain constituent elements of the noun phrase in Romanian. Most languages have noun phrases in their grammars, that is to say constructions consisting of a noun as the core element, or head, together with various classes of modifiers in the form of adjectives or adjective phrases, other nouns or noun phrases, dependent clauses. Adjectival modifiers are further divided into subclasses, principally descriptive, limiting and determinative. Typically, descriptive adjectives distinguish qualities (e.g. *young, natural, yellow, beautiful*...), limiting adjectives restrict as to quantities (e.g. *much, several, twenty*...), and determinative adjectives (or determiners, as we shall call them) specify certain grammatical properties that situate the phrase in its context (e.g. definiteness, cross-reference). The latter subdivide into articles (*a, the*...), demonstratives (*this, those*...), possessives (*my, your*...), interrogatives (*which, what*...), and assorted oddments (*each, certain*...). In the present study we shall confine ourselves to the articles, demonstratives and interrogative determiners of Romanian.[1]

1.1 In Romanian, all adjectival modifiers share the syntactic property of agreement with two grammatical features of the noun they modify: its number (singular vs. plural) and its gender (feminine or masculine).

Although plural number is signaled overtly, in Romanian as in English, by means of a suffix (Romanian *-i, -e, -uri;* English *-s, -es,* etc.), gender is not an overt category and is therefore not signaled directly by the noun itself in either Romanian or English. Gender is a syntactic property inherent in the noun, and has nothing to do with the semantic content of a message in the way number does. In English, the gender of a noun determines whether we replace its singular form with *he, she* or *it.* In Romanian, gender determines not only pronouns (say, *el* vs. *ea*) but also, in combination with number, the ending of an adjectival modifier and therefore that of a determiner: article or demonstrative.

In English, gender correlates with objective reality, with nature: broadly speaking, common nouns (*it*-nouns) refer to inanimate things, feminine nouns (*she*-nouns) to females, masculine nouns (*he*-nouns) to males. In Romanian, gender correlates only very partially with nature. There is not "common" gender; there is only feminine for females and some of the inanimates, and masculine for males and the rest of the inanimates.[2] Furthermore, there are quantities of nouns naming inanimates that are masculine in the singular, feminine in the plural. These we shall say have mixed gender.[3]

The student of Romanian can learn to predict the gender of inanimate nouns to a very considerable extent according to their base-types and their plural-endings. Correlation between these features of a noun and its gender is by no means complete, nor is it systematic. But it can be relied upon enough to make its study worthwhile. We will therefore look, first, at noun base-types and plural-endings in relation to gender.

1.2 Base-Types.

1.21 *ă*-bases. Nouns with singular form ending in the vowel /-ă/ (*casă, inimă, sală, pisică...*)[4] may be designated ă-bases. All ă-bases are feminine, except for a tiny minority naming male persons, such as /tată- or popă-/.

1.22 *u*-bases. Nouns with singular form ending in the vowel /-u/ (*lucru, fiu, muzeu, studiu...*) may of course be classed as *u*-bases, and the list may logically be expanded to include a vast number of nouns with singular form ending in a consonant, including /i/ after a vowel or *ch, gh* (*om, prieten, student, obicei, război, ochi, unghi...*) which, when the definite article is suffixed (see 2.11) show a /u/ after that consonant (*omul, prietenul, studentul, obiceiul, razboiul...*). The underlying form of any *u*-base may be represented as having final /-u/: thus not only /lucru-, fiu-, muzeu-, stúdiu-[5]/, but also /omu-, priĕtenu-, studentu-, obiceiu-, războiu-, óchiu-, únghiu-.../.

All *u*-bases are masculine in their singular form. We shall see what ones are mixed (feminine in their plural form) when we look at plural formation (1.4).

1.23 *e*-bases. Nouns with singular form ending in the unstressed vowel /e/ (*frate, carte, nume, familie*) may, finally, be called *e*-bases, and the underlying form of an *e*-base may be represented as having final /-e/, thus: /frate-, carte-, nume-, famílie.../.

Some *e*-bases are feminine, some are masculine, and there is no way to predict with inanimates: /floare-, lume-, noapte-/ are feminine, while /soare-, nume-, lapte-/ are masculine. The gender simply has to be learned outright, as a native speaker does, perhaps mainly by association with the form taken by adjectival modifiers in phrases with these nouns as heads. In the vocabulary provided for use with this material, the *e*-base inanimates that are masculine, being in the minority, are tagged with a following *m*.

1.24 Stressed vowel bases. Nouns with a singular form ending in a stressed vowel (*zi, basma*) and nouns which end in /-ea/ (*stea, caţea...*) all take /-le/ in the plural. The latter group may be considered to end in /-é/ with an automatic addition of /-a/ and formation of the dipthong [-eá]. Compare the same phenonomenon in verbs where the second and third classes are differentiated by stress: *fáce, taceá*.

All stressed vowel bases are feminine.

1.3 The Plural-Endings. These come in four shapes: the vowel /-i/, the vowel /-e/, and the unstressed strings /-uri/ and /-le/. Each of the first three of these variants occurs with nouns of the first three base-classes, and may be said to cancel out the base vowel itself, thus:

ă-bases		*u*-bases		*e*-bases	
/lun~~ă~~-i/	*luni*	/domn~~u~~-i/	*domni*	/munt~~e~~-i/	*munti*[6]
/cas~~ă~~-e/	*case*	/stat~~u~~-e/	*state*	/num~~e~~-e/	*nume*
/treab~~ă~~-uri	*treburi*	/lucr~~u~~-uri/	*lucruri*	/vrem~~e~~-uri/	*vremuri*

The fourth group, the stressed vowel bases, all have plurals in /-le/. Stressed vowels are not cancelled out by the plural ending; for instance, /zí-le/ → *zile*, /basmá-le/ → *basmale*, /sté-le/ → *stele*.

The regular, routine plural-ending for nouns of all three base-classes is the /-i/. Thus any noun unmarked in the vocabulary as to its plural form may be assumed to pluralize with /-i/ *and to keep the same gender:*[7] /lună-, pasu-, munte-$_m$/.

The other three endings, /-e/ and /-uri/, and /-le/, *guarantee that the plural form of the noun is feminine,* regardless of which gender the singular form has. Since the incidence of either one of the first two endings is unpredictable, nouns that pluralize in /-e/ or /-uri/ are marked accordingly in the lexicon: /casă-(e), statu-(e), locu-(uri)/. Those which are basically masculine but switch to feminine in the plural constitute the "mixed-gender" group referred to above.[8]

Attention is called to the following regular principles of vowel harmony that apply in plural-formation: (1) basic stressed /ea/ reduces to /e/ before any plural-ending /seară-i/ → *seri*, /treabă-uri/ → *treburi*; (2) basic stressed /oa/ reduces to /o/ before the regular ending /-i/: /floare-i/ → *flori*; (3) basic stressed /a/ goes to /ă/ before the regular plural-ending /-i/ in feminine nouns only: /ţar~~ă~~-i/ → *ţări*, /sal~~ă~~-i/ → *săli*, /blan~~ă~~-uri/ → *blănuri*. Beyond this, other vowel alternations are fully spelled out in the vocabulary: *fată (fete)*.

Likewise pointed out are the following regular consonant-alternations that apply in plural-formation. Before the regular ending only: (1) basic /t/ shifts to /ţ/: /tat~~ă~~-i/ → *taţi*, /student~~u~~-i/ → *studenţi*, /part~~e~~-i/ → *părţi*; (2) basic /s/ shifts to /ş/: /pas~~u~~-i/ → *paşi*; (3) basic /d/ becomes /z/: /strad~~ă~~-i/ → *străsi*; (4) basic /l/ drops out in *u*-bases: /copil~~u~~-i/ → *copii*, /cal~~u~~-i/ → *cai*, /cal~~e~~-i/ → *căi*.

2.0 The Determiners. All determiners basically carry, by the principle of the gender/number agreement of adjectival modifiers with their head noun, one of four suffixes, each of which embodies in a single underlying vowel both the gender and the number signal:

	Sing.	Plur.
Masc.	/-u/	/-i/
Fem.	/-a/	/-e/

2.1 The Articles. There is the definite article, with two basic forms; the indefinite article, likewise with two; and the possessive article, with one.

2.11 The Definite Article (DA). Unlike English *the*, which stands first in the noun phrase (NP), the Romanian DA regularly appears *as a suffix* on the first full word of the phrase, provided that word is of a type privileged to accept it. Head nouns and most modifying adjectives when they precede the head noun (N), have this privilege. In every case but the feminine singular, the underlying form of the suffixed DA may be seen as consisting of the single-consonant root /l-/ to which is added the appropriate one of the three other agreement-endings carried by the whole larger class of adjectival modifiers. However, there are numerous modifications in the actual forms. To illustrate and practice these "surface forms" we will begin with the simplest type of NP: that of DA + N.

(1) The /-u/ of the masculine singular (m.sg.) /-lu/ drops away just like the basic final /-u/ of a *u*-base noun. Any *u*-base noun itself, however, keeps its /-u/ before the suffix: /teatru-lu/ → *teatrul*, /omu-lu/ → *omul*.[9] By exception, the /-u/ shifts to harmonize with the final /-e/ of an *e*-base masculine: /frate-lu/ → *fratele*, /cîine-lu/ → *cîinele*.

(2) In the feminine singular (f.sg.) there is only /-a/. The ending /-a/, thus left next to the base-final /-ă/ or /-e/, combines with that vowel to produce /-a/ or /-ea/ respectively: /sală-a/ → *sala*, /carte-a/ → *cartea*. Those feminines in stressed vowels insert /-u/ between the base and the article: /zí-a/ → *ziua*, /basmá-a/ → *basmáua*, /steá-a/ → *steáua*.

(3) In the masculine plural (m.pl.) The /l/ of /-li/ disappears (the

same as in /copil~~u~~-i/ → *copii*): /copil~~u~~-i-li/ → *copiii*, /munt~~e~~-i-li/ → *munţii*.

(4) Only in the feminine plural (f.pl.) /-le/ do both elements remain unchanged: /strad~~ă~~-i-le/ → *străzile*, /bilet~~u~~-e-le/→ *biletele*, /ide~~e~~-i-le/ → *ideile*, /cas~~ă~~-e-le/ → *casele*, loc~~u~~-uri-le/ → *locurile*, /stúdi~~u~~-i-le/ → *studiile*, /zi-le-le/ → *zilele*, /sté-le-le/ → *stelele*.

EXERCISE 1. Write the corresponding DA and N phrases, as illustrated.

Singulars

domn domnul
carte
apă
rege
cal
sora sora
obicei
stea
idee
şosea

Plurals

state
gînduri
surori
dinţi
studii
camere
paturi
limbi
popi
scoli

Exactly like English *all* and *both*, the Romanian limiting adjectives *tot*, *toată* 'all' and *amîndoi*, *amîndouă* 'both' alone enjoy the privilege of occurring in *pre*-determiner positions in the NP without disturbing the position of DA suffix: *tot timpul* 'all the time', *toate teatrele* 'all the theatres', *amîndoi fraţii* 'both (the) brothers'.

EXERCISE 2. Write in this type of phrase with /tot-/ which of course can modify only non-countable nouns (see 2.12) in the singular.

Singluars

timp tot timpul
lumină
cafea
vreme
sînge

Plurals

oameni toţi oamenii
biserici
zile
arbori
dealuri

When other adjectives precede the N for any reason, they themselves take over suffixation of the DA: *primul tren* 'the first train', *ultimii ani* 'the last years'. Whether the adjective has all four agreement endings, or just the one plural agreement-ending /-i/ for either gender (like /mic-/ m.sg. *mic*, f.sg. *mica*, pl. *mici*), or whether it is an *e*-base adjective with no singular agreement-ending either (like /mare/ sg. *mare*, pl. *mari*) the suffixed DA is manifested in all four of its expected forms, according to the gender/number of the N:

Base	Sg.	Pl.	Base	Sg.	Pl.
/prim-/	*primul*	*primii*	/nou-/	*noul*	*noii*
	prima	*primele*		*noua*	*noile*
/mare-/	*marele*[10]	*marii*	/mic-/	*micul*	*micii*
	marea	*marile*		*mica*	*micile*

EXERCISE 3. Add DA to the adjective-plus-N combinations.

Singulars	Plurals
mare ţară marea ţară	*vechi biserici*
mic oraş	*noi studenţi*
intreagă lume	*frumoşi brazi*

Possessive/Dative Noun Phrases. At this point we must pause to take account of a peculiarly Romanian construction. In this language an NP can be marked by an element which equips the NP to function as either a possessive modifier of another N (like English *the child's* in *the child's parents* or *of the week* in *days of the week*), or as a dative complement (in other words, an indirect object) in a verb phrase (like English *John* in *send John some money* or *to the boys* in *give my greetings to the boys*). The Romanian possessive/dative marker (PD) is another suffix which attaches itself to any determiner.[11] It regularly comes in two complementary shapes: consonantal /-i/ when the N is singular, unstressed /-or/ when the N is plural. Since, obviously, "any determiner" includes the DA in the suffixed form we have just examined above, we must now look at the effect of further suffixation of PD on the form of the DA.[12]

(a) The vowel of m.sg. /-lu/ is retained, not dropped: /muzeulu-i/ → *muzeului*, /tata-lu-i/ → *tatalui*,[13] /soare-lu-i/ → *soarelui*.

(b) The vowel of f.sg. /-a/ becomes either /i/ or /e/, in an exact matching with the plural-ending taken by the individual noun involved. If the feminine noun pluralizes with regular /-i/ or with special /-uri/, the vowel of the DA will be /i/: /uş~~ă~~-i-i/ → *uşii*, /treab~~ă~~-i-i/ → *trebii*, /leg~~e~~-i-i/ → *legii*.[14] Exception: In *e*-bases with an /i/ directly before the base vowel, the vowel of the DA is /e/ rather that expected /i/: /famili~~e~~-e-i/ → *familiei*, /soti~~e~~-e-i/ → *sotiei*. If the feminine noun pluralizes with special /-e/, the vowel of the DA will be /e/: /mam~~ă~~-e-i/ → *mamei*. If the plural is /-le/, the /le/ occurs also in the PD: /ste-le-i/ → *stelei*, / zi-le-i/ → *zilei*.

(c) The vowels of both m.pl. /-li/ and f.pl. /-le/ are replaced by PD /-or/, but with the basic /l-/ retained in the m.pl. as well as the f.pl.: /barbati-l~~i~~-or/ → *barbatilor*, /state-l~~e~~-or/ → *statelor*, /studii-l~~e~~-or/ → *studiilor*,[15] /ste-le-l~~e~~-or/ → *stelelor*.

EXERCISE 4. Write Possessive-Dative with Definite Article + Noun or Definite Article + Adjective + Noun in the blanks.

Singulars

clasă clasei
cuvînt
noapte
inimă
veche cultură[16]

mare popor
perete
caz
conditie
viata

Plurals

românі
locuri
flori
treburi
prime lucruri

ultimi paşi
sate
porţi
scrisori
nume

2.12 The alternate form /cel-/. While the suffixed DA is the regular, expected form of the DA, we must now note that the privilege of accepting this suffix belongs only to a head N, or to an adjective-plus-N combination. Therefore, when some other element stands in first position, the DA becomes a word in its own right, with forms as follows:

		Sing.	Plur.
Masc.	/celu-/	*cel*	*cei*
Fem.	/ce(a)-/	*cea*	*cele*

Note the masculine plural has the characteristic loss of /l/ before /i/ and the feminine plural has the /-le/ after a stressed vowel in conformity with patterns already observed.

The principle contexts requiring /cel-/ are the following.

(a) The head N is plural and is preceded by a numeral word: *cei doi prieteni* (= 'the two friends' as opposed to *doi prieteni* 'two friends'), *cele patru vînturi, cele treizeci de zile, cei o sută de ani.*

(b) The head N is preceded by *mai* 'most' plus an adjective, expressing the superlative degree: *cel mai bun prieten* 'the best friend', *cei mai mari poeţi, cele mai frumoase tablouri, cea mai uşoară limbă.* An adjective in the superlative degree may follow the head N as well as precede it, for the same stylistic reasons that allow a number of plain adjectives to take either position. Observe, for example:

Plain	Superlative
frumoasa vreme	*cea mai frumoasă vreme*
or: *vremea frumoasă*	or: *vremea cea mai frumoasă*

As we see, when the superlative adjective follows the N, the DA occurs twice: first on the N, and again as the superlative marker, in a manner exactly parallel to the French double use of the DA in a phrase like *la femme la plus belle.*

EXERCISE 5. Definitize the NP's by writing in the proper form of /cel-/.

cei ______ *cinci fii*
______ *două popoare*
______ *doi soldaţi*

______ *şase linii*
______ *nouă săptămîni*
______ *patru unchi*

EXERCISE 6. Make the pre-N adjectives superlative by writing in the proper form of /cel-/ plus *mai*.

cea mai *bună vîrstă*
________ *lungă pace*
________ *mici copii*
________ *bune urechi*
________ *frumos dar*
________ *mari autori*

EXERCISE 7. Make the post-N adjectives superlative by writing in the proper form of /cel-/ plus *mai*.

cerul cel mai *frumos*
hainele ________ *noi*
țara ________ *bogată*
piatra ________ *mică*
numărul ________ *mare*
munții ________ *înalți*

Let us pause to note that in an English NP like *the old car*, either the N or the adjective may receive the main stress: *the old cár* or *the óld car*. One function of the second pattern, with stress on *old*, is to focus on the *differential* value of the adjective and thereby to imply, in effect, *the old car* as opposed to *the new car*. In Romanian, with its less flexible stress patterns, this same purpose is accomplished by adding a second DA, in the form of /cel-/, before an adjective that follows the N, thus:

mașina veche 'the old car'
vs: *masina cea veche*[17] 'the old car'

cravatele negre 'the black ties'
vs: *cravatele cele negre* 'the black ties'

(c) The head N, although accompanied by one or another modifier including the DA, is itself understood from the earlier context already established in the sentence or the discourse and is therefore simply omitted as contributing no new information. In English the N is replaced by unstressed *one(s)* in such a phrase, i.e. *the black cow* can become *the black one*, *the famous authors* → *the famous ones*, *the coat in the window* → *the one in the window*, *the films (that) we saw* → *the ones (that) we saw*. But in Romanian the head N may be omitted altogether when its repetition would contribute nothing new. The DA, with no expressed N to attach itself to, is replaced by /cel-/ or merges with a /cel-/ already present (see above). Thus either *maşina veche* or *maşina cea veche* can become simply *cea veche, magazinul cel mai scump* → *cel mai scump, copiii din grădină* → *cei din grădină, fetele care studinază* → *cele care studiază.*

In PD phrases. The article /cel-/ accepts the PD suffix in the normal way, provided of course that it stands first in the phrase. The forms are exactly the expected ones: m.sg. *celui,* f.sg. *celei,* pl. *celor.*

EXERCISE 8. Make the following NP's differential by writing in the proper form of /cel-/ before the adjective.

unchiul cel *sărac*
calea ________ *lungă*
zidurile ________ *vechi*
sala ________ *mică*
popa ________ *bătrîn*
medicii ________ *tineri*

EXERCISE 9. Replace the omitted N by writing in the proper form of /cel-/.

domnul → cel *care vine*
ceasurile → ________ *de aur*
tablourile → ________ *scumpe*
legea → ________ *nouă*
rîul → ________ *mai lung*
vinul → ________ *care vă place*

EXERCISE 10. Make PD phrases introduced by /cel-/ by writing in the proper form.

cea → celei *de pe masă*
cel → ________ *care ştie*
cea → ________ *mai frumoase*[18]
cea → ________ *mai scurte*
cele → ________ *şase luni*
cei → ________ *bătrîni*
cel → ________ *care rîde*
cele → ________ *două căi*
cei → ________ *de piatră*

2.13 The Indefinite Article (IA). Exactly like English *a/an,* the Romanian IA with underlying form /un-/ is usable only with singular heads which name items that are countable and therefore pluralizable. The position of /un-/ in the phrase is as in English. When word-final the m.sg. vowel of /unu/ drops away leaving simply *un (un an, un oraş, un băiat),* while the f.sg. vowel of /una/ amalgamates with the base to yield the one-letter word *o (o fată, o carte, o şosea).*

EXERCISE 11. Form IA + N phrases by writing in *un* or *o* as illustrated.

un *băiat*
uşă
frate
o *sală*
chestie
cîine
metru
tată
seară
zi
izvor
mie

With PD /-i/ added, the forms are as expected, with /unu-i/ → *unui* and /una-i/ → *unei*.

EXERCISE 12. Make PD Phrases with IA + N.

unui *prieten*
limbi[16]
zone
poet
nopţi
şef
vîrste
prilej
scrisori
stele
artist
mijloc

Exactly like English unstressed *some*, the Romanian IA /nişte/ is usable only with (a) plural heads (cf. *some beans*), (b) singular heads naming substances that are not pluralizable (cf. *some rice*). Examples: *nişte prienteni*, *nişte lapte*.

EXERCISE 13. Form phrases of this type by writing in a random selection of plural nouns and (uncountable) singular nouns.

nişte aur________
nişte __________
nişte __________
nişte __________
nişte sticle________
nişte __________
nişte __________
nişte __________

The IA /nişte/ itself cannot accept the PD suffix, but in PD phrases with plural heads /nişte/ is replaceable by /un-/, which can add /-or/ as well as /-i/, thus: /PD + *nişte eroi*/ → *unor eroi*, /PD + *nişte bilete*/ → *unor bilete*.[18]

2.14 Romanian vs. English: Comparative Usage. English makes wide use of nouns unmarked by any determiner, and there are even a few three-way semantic contrasts such as *in church : in a church : in the church*, or *man : a man : the man*. Typically, however, the functional opposition is two-way only: *a house : the house*, *some children : the children*, *cars : the cars*, *literature : the literature, gold : the gold.* The Romanian contrast between IA + N and DA + N is normally parallel to English (*o casă ≠ casa, nişte copii ≠ copiii*), while the contrast between lone N and DA + N is much more restricted: it occurs mainly when the NP's are direct objects of verbs and the difference is between non-definiteness and definiteness, e.g. *I'll take the wine = Eu iau vinul ≠ I'll take the wine = eu iau vinul*, or *We buy books = Cumpărăm cărţi ≠ We buy the books = Cumpărăm cărţile.* Otherwise, however, the English difference between *wine* (in general) and *the wine* (in particular) is obliterated in Romanian because both the general and the particular meanings require the DA:

We like wine }
We like the wine } = *Ne place vinul*

Cats are intelligent }
The cats are intelligent } = *Pisicile sînt inteligente*

And note also, in the general sense, *Man is mortal = Omul e muritor,* or *Life is a struggle = Viaţa e o luptă.*

On the other hand, when a singular unmodified NP is object of a preposition, the non-definite vs. definite contrast (English *on a street ≠ on the street*) is expressed in Romanian by IA + N vs. lone N: *pe o stradă ≠ pe stradă, într-un restaurant ≠ în restaurant, despre un război ≠ despre război.* With a plural NP the contrast is lost altogether: *for men* and *for the men* both equate with *pentru oameni.* A noteworthy exception to this syntactic rule is the preposition of accompaniment or instrumentality, namely *cu*, after which, as anywhere else, lone nouns are only non-definite as in *(cafea) cu lapte, (a veni) cu copii* and DA + N phrases are normal, as in *(paralel) cu şoseaua, cu trenul* 'on the train, by train', *(a veni) cu copiii.*

In contrast to English, the Romanian names of cities and countries, and some given names for female persons, are basically accompanied by the DA as in the following sample lists: (a) *Bucureştiul, Iaşiul, Parisul, Constanţa, Londra, Viena;* (b) *România, Anglia, Franţa, Olanda*; (c) *Rodica, Sanda, Ileana, Magda.* These names can therefore all take the PD suffix: *Bucureştiului, Parisului, Londrei, Vienei, României, Franţei, Sandei, Magdei.*

After a preposition, only the masculine city-names drop the DA suffix: *din Bucureşti, la Paris;* but *în România, despre Anglia, pentru Maria, pe Sanda.* The names of the months, the names of male persons, family names in the singular, and a few feminine names, on the other hand, are never accompanied by the DA. They can, nevertheless, function in PD phrases through adaptation of the PD pronoun form *lui,* as in *lui decembrie, lui Radu, lui Popescu, lui Iris,* etc.

2.15 The Possessive Article (PA). There are two grammatical contexts in which neither the DA nor the IA is appropriate and a special undifferentiated article is required. This third article, also a word in its own right, is called in standard Romanian grammars "the possessive article" or "the genitive article", and we will continue to use the first of these labels even though the term applies to only one of the contexts involved. The PA, then, has the following forms:

	Sing.	Plur.
Masc.	*al*	*ai*
Fem.	*a*	*ale*

Again note the characteristic absence of the /l/ in the f.sg. and its loss in the m.pl. The special contexts requiring /al-/ are the following.

(a) The head N is modified by a numeral adjective carrying the ordinal suffix corresponding to English *-th* as in *fourth, tenth, hundredth.* The Romanian ordinal suffix is /-lea/ in agreement with masculines, /-a/ in agreement with feminines. The ordinal adjective is obligatorily preceded by /al-/, e.g. *al doilea rînd, a şaptea zi, a cincizecia oară, al o sutălea an.* Note that in these examples the ordinal precedes the N, which is the normal case (as in English), although it may also follow the N as in *lecţia a şasprezecea* or *secolul al douăzecilea.* The latter structure is mostly used for items that come in set series (lessons, chapters, etc.) where English would say *Lesson Sixteen* (in a book, in a listed or planned series, etc.) as against *the sixteenth lesson* (of an indefinite or unknown number).

In all the foregoing examples the article clearly has definite meaning, but it just as clearly does not if the IA is also present, which it can be, in initial position: *un al treilea război = a third war, o a şaptea roată = a seventh wheel.*

EXERCISE 14. Complete the following NP's of (IA +) Ord. Adj. + N by writing in the proper form of /al-/.

a *patra boală*
____ *treilea bărbat*
____ *al douăzecilea caz*
____ *o suta persoană*
un ____ *cincilea copil*
o ____ *doua vară*

(b) A possessive modifier, that is to say a PD phrase,[19] follows a head N which is either (1) non-definite or (2) first followed by some other intervening modifier, or (3) omitted. We may look at the three possibilities separately.

(1) When the N is non-definite, the PD phrase is obligatorily preceded by /al-/. The following paired examples show the N as both definite and non-definite, the better to bring out the contrast:

Without /al-/	With /al-/
ideea studentului	*o idee a studentului*
prietenii noştri	*nişte prieteni ai noştri*
toate grijile dumitale	*multe griji ale dumitale*

Note that the agreement of the PA /al-/ is with the head N (*idee, prieteni, griji*) of the entire phrase, not with that of the PD-phrase modifier (*studentul, noi, dumneata*).

EXERCISE 15. Complete the following NP's of this type by writing in the proper form of /al-/.

nişte gînduri ale *mele*
o greseală ____ *lui Paul*
mulţi fii ____ *republicii*
un mare scop ____ *femeilor*
primul cuvînt ____ *dumneavoastră*
alte regiuni ____ *ţării*

(2) When the PD phrase is separated from the N by an intervening modifier, typically though not necessarily an adjective, the presence of /al-/ is required even when the N carries the DA:

Without /al-/	With /al-/
ideea studentului	*ideea nebună a studentului*
prietenii noştri	*prietenii cei mai simpatici ai noştri*
grijile dumitale	*grijile mari ale dumitale*
istoria României	*istoria de artă a României*

EXERCISE 16. Complete NP's of this type by writing in the proper form of /al-/.

ochii frumosi ai *fetei*
motivul cel mai bun __________ *tatei*
măsura principală __________ *guvernului*
visele cel mai dragi __________ *mele*
fratele cel tînăr __________ *doamnei*
maşina neagră __________ *şefului*

(3) When the head N, though modified by a PD phrase, is itself clearly understood from the established context, it is simply omitted. In English the N is normally not replaced in this construction, i.e. *John's house* (or *place*) → *John's*, *my baggage* → *mine*, *two articles of yours* → *two of yours*, *the city of the future* → *that of the future*. But in Romanian the N must be replaced by /al-/ in agreement with it. Thus *soţia lui Ion* can become *a lui Ion*, *lucrurile mele* → *ale mele*, *istoria Statelor Unite* → *a Statelor Unite*, *oraşul viitorului* → *al viitorului*.[20]

EXERCISE 17. Omit and replace the N in the NP's below by writing in the proper form of /al-/.

părinţii mei ai *mei*
braţele ei _____ *ei*
preţul camerei _____ *camerei*
poeţii României _____ *României*
numărul casei _____ *casei*
culoarea cafelei _____ *cafelei*

From the foregoing classification of the contexts calling for use of /al-/ before a PD phrase it should be clear that if there is a single condition requiring /al-/, it is a negative one: /al-/ is obligatory whenever the PD phrase does *not* immediately follow DA + N. The examples also clearly indicate that the PA is inherently neither definite nor indefinite.

2.2 The Demonstratives. English has just two demonstratives: *this* (pl. *these*) and *that* (pl. *those*), although a very usual English expression is "this, that and the other". Romanian has demonstrative equivalents for those phree plus a fourth meaning 'the same'. Each of the four has numerous variants, as we shall see. All the demonstratives, in Romanian as in English, contain the feature of definiteness. The two corresponding to English *this* and *that* are both deictic (this/that man = *the* man being pointed out) and anaphoric (this/that man = *the* man already referred to). Those corresponding to English *the other* and *the same* are anaphoric only.

2.21 First Demonstrative (DEM_1). The Romanian equivalent of English *this/that* as opposed to *that/those* i.e. a DEM oriented to the first person as opposed to the second or third, as formal and informal standard variants. We begin with the formal variant /acest-/, which has the following forms:

		Sing.	Plur.
Masc.	/acestu-/	*acest*	*aceşti*
Fem.	/această-/	*această*	*aceste*

Note the normal vowel harmony and consonant alternation.

Like English *this*, Romanian /acest-/ may precede the head N: *aceasta stradă, acest domn, aceşti oameni, aceste persoane.*

EXERCISE 18. Complete the DEM + N phrases below by writing in the proper form of /acest-/.

aceste *studii*
__________ *natură*
__________ *regi*

__________ *articole*
__________ *sînge*
__________ *luptă*

__________ *bătrîni*
__________ *pas*
__________ *zonă*

In PD phrases with DEM$_1$ preceding the N, /acest-/ takes on the PD suffix in the expected forms: m.sg. *acestui*, f.sg. *acestei*, pl. *acestor*.

EXERCISE 19. Complete the phrases below accordingly.

acestui *secol*
__________ *popi*
__________ *principii*
__________ *luni* (sg.)[18]
__________ *eroi*
__________ *gradini* (pl.)
__________ *act*
__________ *cauze* (sg.)
__________ *punct*

In conversational styles, however, DEM$_1$ is more apt to follow the N, a variation wholly foreign to English but not uncommon in Spanish, where *este edificio* 'this building' can become *el edificio este*. When this happens in Romanian, the demonstrative is obliged to carry a semantically empty suffixed marker /-a/, with the following results:

		Sing.	Plur.
Masc.	/acest~~ŭ~~-a/	*acesta*	*aceştia*
Fem.	/aceast~~ă~~-a/	*aceasta*	*acestea*

Note that the suffix cancels out the singular agreement-ending but not the plural one: in the singular the overt difference is transferred to the stressed vowel. In addition, the head N must now carry the DA suffix (compare the Spanish example given above). Thus we get these equivalences differing only in style:

acest domn = domnul acesta
această stradă = strada aceasta
aceşti oameni = oamenii aceştia
aceste persoane = persoanele acestea

EXERCISE 20. Transform the DEM$_1$ + N phrases below to equivalent phrases of DA + N + DEM$_1$.

acest cal → calul acesta
aceşti ochi → __________
această seară → __________
această cultură → __________
acest aer → __________
aceste familii → __________

On the other hand, PD phrases with DEM$_1$ /acest-a/ following the N are rare in conversation and in fact characterize a very formal, edited style. In this position the DEM itself also carries the PD suffix in agreement with the head. The PD suffix precedes the marker /-a/, as seen in these examples:

acestui student = studentului acestuia
acestei uşi = uşii acesteia

acestor autori = autorilor acestora
acestor studii = studiilor acestora

EXERCISE 21. Transform the PD phrases as in Exercise 20.

acestui act → actului acestuia
acestei luni → ______________
acestor şcoli → ______________
acestei biserici → ______________
acestor dinţi → ______________
acestui lapte → ______________

The informal variant of DEM$_1$, widely used by educated speakers in conversation, is /ăst-/, which always comes *after* DA + N and so always carries the marker /-a/, in the following forms:

		Sing.	Plur.
Masc.	/ăstu̸-a/	*ăsta*	*ăştia*
Fem.	/astă̸-a/	*asta*	*astea*

Note the shift from initial /ă/ to /a/ in the feminine forms -- a shift which assumes the burden of contrast in the singular.

EXERCISE 22. Make informal DA + N + DEM$_1$ phrases with the nouns given.

pisică pisica asta
avioane ______________
haine ______________
grădină ______________
magazin ______________
medici ______________

In PD phrases with DEM$_1$ /ăst-a/ the rules and the style are the same and the forms are as expected: *ăstuia, asteia, ăstora.*

EXERCISE 23. Transform the six plain phrases with informal DEM$_1$, which you wrote in Exercise 22, into the corresponding PD phrases.

pisicii asteia
____
____
____
____
____

2.22 Second Demonstrative (DEM$_2$). The Romanian equivalent of English *that/those* as opposed to *this/these,* i.e. a DEM oriented to the second or third person as opposed to the first, has, instead of formal and informal variants, standard and non-standard ones. The standard variant is /acel-/, with the following forms:

		Sing.	Plur.
Masc.	/acelu/	*acel*	*acei*
Fem.	/ace(a)/	*acea*	*acele*

Observe that these forms are identical with those of the DA /cel-/ except for the initial unstressed vowel. The position of DEM$_2$ relative to the N is the same as that of DEM$_1$, i.e. before the N (*acel poet, acele ţări, acea societate, acei popi*), with the PD suffix addable to produce m.sg. *acelui*, f.sg. *acelei*, pl. *acelor*.

EXERCISE 24. Complete the DEM$_2$ + N phrases below.

acei *băieţi*
_________ *lapte*
_________ *femeie*
_________ *suflet*
_________ *numere*
_________ *viaţă*
_________ *munţi*
_________ *culoare*
_________ *ierni*

EXERCISE 25. More of the same with PD added.

acelui *glas*
_________ *preţuri*
_________ *bărbaţi*
_________ *doamne* (sg.)[18]
_________ *semne*
_________ *străzi* (sg.)
_________ *ploi* (sg.)
_________ *străini*
_________ *vînt*

Just as with DEM$_1$, in conversation DEM$_2$ more frequently follows DA + N and carries the marker /-a/:

		Sing.	Plur.
Masc.	/acel~~u~~-a/	*acela*	*aceia*
Fem.	/ace(a)-a/	*aceea*	*acelea*

Note that the m.pl. and the f.sg. forms are spelled differently, although they sound exactly alike. Now compare the following equivalences paralleling those with DEM$_1$:

acel scop = scopul acela
acea dragoste = dragostea aceea
acei munţi = munţii aceia
acele tablouri = tablourile acelea

And in PD phrases, with second order very formal:

acelui centru = centrului aceluia
acelei glume = glumei aceleia
acelor paşi = paşilor acelora
acelor motive = motivelor acelora

EXERCISE 26. Transform the DEM_2 + N phrases below to equivalent phrases of DA + N + DEM_2.

acel vis → visul acela
acei fii → ______________
acele mame → ______________
acel război → ______________
acele articole → ______________
acea sticlă → ______________

EXERCISE 27. Transform the following PD phrases in the same way.

acelui cîmp → cîmpului aceluia
acelei vremi → ______________
acelor cîini → ______________
acelei lupta → ______________
acelor nevoi → ______________
acelor părinţi → ______________

The non-standard variant of DEM_2, in very limited use by educated speakers, is /ăl-/. It patterns syntactically with informal /ăst-/, having the following forms:

		Sing.	Plur.
Masc.	/ălʉ́-a/	*ala*	*aia*
Fem.	/ai-a/	*aia*	*alea*

The learner of Romanian will normally have no need for an active knowledge of this variant of DEM_2.

2.23 Third Demonstrative (DEM_3). Romanian has single-word demonstratives equating with what can perhaps be called the English "demonstrative phrases" *the same* and *the other*. The DEM equating with *the same* is /acelʉ́-a-şi/, which is obviously derived from /acel-/ and means literally 'that self(-same), that very'. The unstressed suffix /a-şi/ cancels out the singular agreement endings in an inflectional pattern exactly the same as that of /acel-a/, to wit:

		Sing.	Plur.
Masc. Fem.	/acel~~u~~-a-şi/ /ace(a)-a-şi/	*acelaşi* *aceeaşi*	*aceiaşi* *aceleaşi*

DEM$_3$ always precedes the head N (*acelaşi timp, aceleaşi gînduri*) and takes the PD suffix exactly as expected to produce m.sg. *aceloraşi*.

EXERCISE 28. Complete the DEM$_3$ + N phrases below.

aceeaşi *ureche*
________ *oameni*
________ *drum*
________ *rîu*
________ *tineri*
________ *dealuri*
________ *fraţi*
________ *servicii*
________ *inimă*

EXERCISE 29. More of the same with PD added.

aceluiaşi *lucru*
________ *şefi*
________ *rînd*
________ *grădini* (sg.)[18]
________ *zone* (sg.)
________ *dinţi*
________ *luni* (sg.)
________ *gînduri*
________ *mijloace*

2.24 The Fourth Demonstrative (DEM$_4$). The DEM equating with English *the other* is a composite word made up of the DA /cel-/ and the adjective /alt-/ 'other', patched together with an extra /l/ as link. Both elements carry the agreement inflection, as shown:

		Sing.	Plur.
Masc. Fem.	/celu-l-altu/ /ce(a)-l-altă/	*celălalt* *cealaltă*	*ceilalţi* *celelalte*

Note that the m.sg. agreement ending appears as /ă/ in this unique instance.[21]

EXERCISE 30. Complete the DEM$_4$ + N phrases below.

Cealaltă *metodă*
________ *braţ*
________ *magazine*
________ *munţi*
________ *şosea*
________ *străini*
________ *muzee*
________ *maşini*
________ *tablou*

In PD phrases the suffixal marker is added only to the first element, which is the truly determinative one: *celuilalt*, *celeilalte* (the second element showing the typical PD agreement ending in the f.sg.), *celorlalţi*, *celorlalte*.

EXERCISE 31. More of the same with PD added.

Celorlalţi *domni*
________ *măsuri*
________ *prilej*
________ *mese* (sg.)[16]
________ *scopuri*
________ *mîini* (sg.)
________ *loc*
________ *băieţi*
________ *stele* (sg.)

DEM_4 either precedes the lone N or follows DA + N, with no variation in its own forms. Observe therefore the following stylistic choices:

celălalt joc = jocul celălalt
cealaltă piatră = piatră cealaltă
ceilalţi eroi = eroii ceilalţi
celelalte uşi = uşile celelalte

And in PD phrases:

celuilalt sat = satului celuilalt
celeilalte săli = sălii celeilalte
celorlalti şefi = şefilor celorlalti
celorlalte case = caselor celorlalte

EXERCISE 32. Transform the DEM_4 + N phrases below to equivalent phrases of DA + N + DEM_4.

ceilalţi popi → popii ceilalţi
cealaltă pisică → ________
ceilalţi autori → ________
celălalt ceas → ________
celelalte state → ________
celălalt secol → ________

EXERCISE 33. Transform the following PD phrases in the same way.

celuilalt prilej ________
celorlalte fete ________
celorlalte porti ________
celeilalte surori ________
celorlalti barbati ________
celeilalte pietre ________

When a head N modified by any DEM is itself clearly understood from the context, it is simply omitted as contributing nothing new to the message. In English the N is typically replaced by unstressed *one* in the singular, e.g. *this car* becomes *this one*, *that book* → *that one*, but is not replaced in the plural, e.g. *these letters* → *these*, *those pieces* → *those*. In

Romanian the head N is omitted altogether in this situation, with the DEM displaying two characteristics of its post-N form: obligatory marker /-a/ (except for DEM$_4$, which never takes it) and possible PD marker. Thus either *acest muzeu* or *muzeul acesta* becomes simply *acesta* ('this one', also often 'the latter'); *acelui om* or *omului aceluia* → *aceluia* ('that one', also often 'the former'); *culoarea asta* → *asta, aceeaşi natură* → *aceeaşi, celorlalte femei* or *femeilor celorlalte* → *celorlalte,* and so on. Fragmentary responses consisting solely of lone DEM's of this sort will be practiced below in 2.33.

2.3 The Interrogative Determiners. These are two in number: /ce/, equivalent to English *what*, and /care/, equivalent to English *which*.

2.31 The interrogative /ce/ is invariable in form, showing no gender/number agreement, and it always precedes the head N, as in *ce frică? ce idei?* In contrast to interrogative /care/ it often means 'what kind (sort) of...?' as in *ce maşină?* 'what sort of (a) car?' as against *care maşină?* 'which car?' (of a group established by the context). In exclamatory use /ce/ simply means 'what (a)...! as in *ce viaţă! ce plajă frumoasă! ce idei!*

PD phrases introduced by /ce/ do not occur.

2.32 The interrogative /care/ is likewise invariable, except in PD phrases (see below). It also always precedes the head N, as in *care sală? care muzeu? care străini? care doamne?* In PD phrases /care/ undergoes certain vowel changes when the PD suffixes are added, with the following results: m.sg. *cărui,* f.sg. *cărei,* pl. *căror,* as in *cărui medic? cărei mame? căror fete?* Only when the head N is omitted because understood does /căr-/ add the marker /-a/ after the PD suffix, so that *cărui părinte* becomes *căruia? cărei femei?* → *căreia? căror fii?* → *cărora?*

2.33 Answers to /ce/ and /care/. The NP used in the answer to a question put with the interrogative determiner /ce/ will normally not contain the DA or a DEM, as for example in such exchanges as

Ce maşină preferaţi? -- Preferăm o maşină mică?
Ce fel de program este? -- Este un program muzical.

To this extent, /ce/ can be characterized as non-definite. The NP used in the answer to a question put with /care ~ căr-/, on the other hand, will almost certainly contain the DA or a DEM, as in such exchanges as

Care maşină preferaţi? Preferăm (maşina) { *cea mică.*
aceea.
aceasta (asta).
cealaltă. }

EXERCISE 34. Form interrogative NP's with /care ~ căr-/ by writing in the proper form, with or without PD as indicated by the noun of the lead question.

Centrul?	Care	*centru?*	*Cărţile?*	______	*cărţi?*	*Românii?*	______	*români?*
Guvernului?	Cărui	*guvern?*	*Fetei?*	______	*fete?*	*Sala?*	______	*sală?*
Străinilor?	______	*străini?*	*Fetelor?*	______	*fete?*	*Cîini?*	______	*cîini?*

EXERCISE 35. Give one-word answers, in the form of a DEM with N omitted as understood, to the /care ~ căr-/ questions that follow.

Formal DEM_1:

Batrinului? Căruia? Astuia.
Femeilor? Cărora? ______
Studentului? Caruia? ______
Visurile? Care? ______

Informal DEM_1:

Mamei? Căreia? ______
Eroilor? Cărora? ______
Cafeaua? Care? ______
Brazil? Care? ______

DEM_2:

Tinerilor? Cărora? ______
Copiii? Care? ______
Persoanei? Căreia. ______
Bagajul? Care? ______

DEM_3:

Avionul? Care? ______
Surorii? Căreia? ______
Chestiile? Care? ______
Fetelor? Cărora? ______

DEM_4:

Regii? Care? ______
Laptele? Care? ______

Familor? Cărora? ______
Marea? Care? ______

PASSAGE FOR ANALYSIS[22]

In the following passages all the determiners used in the original text have been replaced with blanks. Fill each blank with the proper form. In case more than one determiner would fit in the slot, the actual one used is identified. After supplying the determiners, translate everything into English.

1. Pentru sportul românesc, la fel ca pentru toate ________(DEM-4) domenii de activitate din patrie, anu_ pe care îl încheiem a fost deosebit de fructuos. Acum, la ora bilanțului, cronicaru___i îi revine plăcut__ dar și dificil__ misiune de a face ___(IA) sinteză __ succeselor sportive ____ anu___i 1968, de a selecționa din mulțime__ trofee__or și performanțe__or de valoare pe _____ mai semnificative... In sfer__ ____or mai valoroase performanțe sportive ____ anu__i 1968, evidențiem cucire__ titlu___i de campioană europeană feroviară de echip__ de fotbal Rapid București, succesu__ rugbyști__or români în întîlnire__ cu reprezentativ__ Franței, victori__ echip__i de fotbal __ țăr__i noastre asupra Elveției, în grup__ I-a preliminarii__or campionatu__i mondial.

2. Activitate__ externă __ României în anu__ care s-a scurs a crescut în amploare și diversitate, sporind contribuți__ țîr__i noastre la lupt__ pentru cauz__ pîc__i în lume. Trecînd în revistă numai une___ aspecte, principale, ____ prezent__i tot mai active ___ țîr__i noastre în viaț__ internațională ___ anu__i 1968, atenți__ ne este atrasă, în primu__ rînd, de intensificare__ și dezvoltare__ relații__or de cooperare ____ României cu _________(DEM-4) țări.

3. [Destrămare__ stăpînir__i romane din Dacia, în lumin__ ultimi__or cercetări arheologice] ... Intensificare__ cercetări__or arheologice din ultimi__ 25 de ani, pe întregu__ cuprins ___ fost__i Dacii Traiane, ne pune în faț__ ___or(IA) descoperiri ce încep a face lumină în legătură cu aspecte___ ________i(DEM-1) probleme atît de controversate.

4. Progrese___ științ__i și ___ cultur__i românești, consecvent__ politică de pace și colaborare cu state___ lum__i în slujb__ nobile__or idealuri ____ umanităț__i, precum și tradițional__ ospitalitate __ poporu__i nostru conferă României rolu__ tot mai frecvent de gazdă __ ___or(IA) prestigioase reuniuni științifice sau cultural-artistice de interes mondial. Recent, agend__ evenimente__or circumscrise ______i(DEM-1) sfere de activități a consemnat desfașurare__ lucrări__or primu__i Congres ___ Asociați__i internaționale Ovidianum **și** ___ ____i(DA) de ___ VII-lea Congres Internațional de Estetică, ambe___ prilejuind ___(IA) rodnic și util schimb de opinii. La interval de numai cîteva zile de la încheiere__ lucrări__or ______or(DEM-1) congrese, capital__ României a fost gazd__ ____i(DA) de ___ III-a Conferințe Mondiale de Cercetare __ Viitorului, și __ ____i(DA) de ___ VII-lea Congres internațional minier. Ambe__ reuniuni și-au desfășurat lucrări__ sub înaltu__ patronaj ___ președinte__i Consiliu__i de Stat ___ României, Nicolae Ceaușescu, care, în mesaje__ adresate participanți__or, acordă __(IA) adîncă prețuire scopuri__or umanitare ___ _______or(DEM-1) foruri științifice, eforturi__or depuse de participanți în __________ direcție.

5. Agapie aducea șase răzeși, fruntași__ ____or(DA) două sate.
6. A adus iarăsi pe străină în odai__ lui, tot cu _______(DEM-3) rînduială.
7. Era gata a o lovi cu ___ doua săgeată.
8. Mătușică, vîră-te aici în sacul _________(DEM-1).
9. Chirica se hlizea cu _________(DEM-4) băieți.
10. _____(DEM-2) împărat bătuse pe toți împărați__.
11. Zile___ iern__i _______(DEM-2) se scurgeau greu.
12. Ce munte e _______(DEM-2)?

FOOTNOTES

1. The Romanian possessive "adjectives" are better classed as pronouns, a subset of nouns profitably studied as possessive-dative noun constructions on the theory that, say, *casa noastră* 'our house' (= the house of us)' belongs to the same class of structures as *casa lui* 'his house (= the house of him)' and indeed *casa omului* 'the man's house (= the house of the man)'.

2. Non-human animates, however, are not sub-categorized as male vs. female: *pisică* 'cat' is feminine, *cîine* 'dog' is masculine.

3. It makes very little sense to call these nouns "neuter", as some grammarians do (e.g. Cazacu et al 1969) just because many (but by no means all) of them are descendants of Latin neuter nouns. All rules for adjective agreement can be stated in terms of just the two genders: masculine and feminine.

4. Glosses are provided only in the Vocabulary (p. 31-33).

5. The stressed vowel of a noun base is always understood to be the last before the base-final vowel itself, wherever it is not specifically marked as being the next-to-last instead, as in /ínimă-/, /stúdiu-/, /priétenu-/, /famílie-.../.

6. The "vocalic" /i/ of a word like /soţie-/ accepts the plural /-i/ separately: /soţie-i/→*soţii*, but a "consonantal" /i/ like in /nevoie-/ absorbs the plural /-i/: /nevoie-i/→*nevoi*.

7. The one exception here is nouns with unstressed vocalic /i/ immediately before the /-u/ (e.g. /studiu-/, all of which pluralize with the regular /-i/ but become feminine in the plural.

8. They are almost exclusively drawn from the *u*-base class, the only noteworthy *e*-base instance being /nume-(e)/ , which as a result has singular and plural identical in form, though not in gender.

9. In the spoken language, even educated Romanians often drop the /l/ as well, thus shifting the burden of the DA signal to the presence vs. absence of base-final /-u/: /om/ vs. /omu/.

10. Note that the m.sg. vowel harmonizes with the preceding /e/ here, just as when it is suffixed to an *e*-base noun.

11. And also even to one or two limiting adjectives like /mult-/ or /alt-/ if the noun is plural, e.g. *multor oameni, altor motive.*

12. We are concerned here only with the formal effect; the function of PD structures in larger NP's and in VP's is another area of the grammar.

13. Masculine *a*-bases take the masculine DA /-lu/ when followed by a modifier *(tatăl meu* or *tatălui meu)* but the feminine DA /-a/ when final in the phrase *(tata* or *tatei).*

14. All the vowel and consonant alternations described in 1.4 operate in the same way before this variant of DA as before the plural-ending /-i/. Note also that DA as /i/ even cancels out a base-final /e/, which the DA as /a/ does not do: so *noaptea* but *nopţii.*

15. The adjective /tot-/, which as we saw (2.11) does not accept the suffixed DA, cannot even occur in a PD phrase where the N is singular; the adjective /întreg-/ 'whole' will be used instead. If the noun is plural, the special variant /túturor/ (showing plural PD agreement) may lead off, e.g. *tuturor românilor* 'of (to) all Romanians'.

16. Any f.sg. N in a PD phrase, or any adjective modifying a f.sg. N in a PD phrase, where the determiner + PD is not suffixed directly to it, must carry a PD agreement ending. This ending has the shape /-i/ if the corresponding plural is /-i/ or /-uri/, or /-e/ if it is /-e/: *vechea ţară* but *vechii ţări, frumoasa şosea* but *frumoasei şosele, casa mică* but *casei mici.*

17. Cf., also, this pattern with personal names, e.g. *Ştefan cel Mare,* exactly like English 'Stephen the Great'.

18. The numeral word /un-/, which is homophonous with the IA when it precedes a N *(un fiu = a son* or *one son),* always adds the DA suffix when it functions as a pronoun. The meaning may be either definite or non-definite: *unul/una = one* (as opposed to *another*) or *the one* (as opposed to *the other*); *unii/unele = some* (as opposed to *others*) or *the ones* (as opposed to *the others*). The derived forms /nici un-/ 'no (= not any)' and /vreun-/ 'one (or another)' may be considered limiting adjectives rather than determiners, formed on the numeral rather than on the IA; they too function pronominally.

19. In accordance with Note 1, on p. 27, the possessives /me-, me(a)-; tă-, tal-; să-, sal-; nostr-, vostr-/, adjective-like in that they show full agreement with the head N, are nevertheless here taken as PD pronouns consisting of the PD marker packaged with the personal pronouns. These possessives complement the dative pronouns, i.e. /mie, ţie, lui, ei, nouă, vouă/: one set in possessive function, the other in indirect-object function.

20. In the phrases *ai mei, ai tăi, ai săi,* no actual noun from elsewhere in the context has been omitted, and the phrase has inherent meaning, like *yours* in the English cliché *you and yours*. These phrases are about the only ones containing the PA that can add the PD marker, as in *în mijlocul alor săi* 'in the midst of one's [own people]'. Thus phrases containg PA before an ordinal adjective cannot add the PD marker directly to /al-/. There is, however, a formal alternative for *al şaptelea congres* (or any such definite NP containing an ordinal adjective), namely *cel de-al şaptelea congres,* and this may add the PD marker to produce *celui de-al şaptelea congres* meaning 'of (to) the seventh conference'.

21. One may well wonder, since the forms *altul, alta, alţii, altele,* (with suffixed DA) do exist why **altul tren* for 'the other train' is not a possible construction just like *primul tren* or *ultimul tren*. But DA + /alt-/ never precedes an expressed N; it is pronominal and is limited to overt or implicit pairing with the pronoun *unul, una, unii, unele* in various types of reciprocal construction corresponding to English *one another, each other*, etc. In addition, f.pl. *altele* is quite common in the N-less expression *şi altele* meaning 'et cetera'. Finally we should add that the m.pl. *unii* and the f.pl. *unele* actually can precede a N, but the meaning is not exclusively definite; it is limiting and denotes 'some' in implied or expressed contrast to either 'others' or 'the others'.

22. The first four, longer items are from 1968 or 1972 numbers of *Glasul Patriei,* a newspaper published until recently in Bucharest. The shorter items are lifted from the Academy's 1966 *Gramatica*.

VOCABULARY

This vocabulary of underlying bases lists only the 185 nouns and the 23 adjectives used in the exercises. All of these entries are listed among the first 1500 items, by frequency, in Juilland et al. 1965. The accompanying English glosses are intendedmmerely as aids to recall, not as complete lexical equivalences.

actu-(e)	act
áeru-	air
anu-	year
apă-(e)	water
árbore-m	tree
artă-(e)	art
artícolu-(e)	article
artistu-	artist
áuru-	gold
autóru-	author
avionu-(e)	airplane
bagaju-(e)	baggage
basma-	scarf
bază-(e)	base
băiatu-(băieţi)	boy
bărbatu-	man, husband
bătrîn- (adj)	old
bătrînu-	old person
biletu-(e)	ticket
bisérică-	church
blană-(uri)	fur
bo(a)lă-	illness
bogat- (adj)	rich
bradu-	fir tree
braţu-(e)	arm
bun (adj)	good
cafe(a)	coffee
cale-	road
calu-	horse
cámeră-(e)	room
carte-	book
casă-(e)	house
cáuză-(e)	cause
cazu-(uri)	case
ceasu-(uri)	clock
centru-(e)	center
ceru-(uri)	sky
chéstie-	question
cîine-m	dog
cîmpu-(uri)	field
cíntecu-(e)	song
clasă-(e)	class
clipă-(e)	moment
condíţie-	condition
copilu-	child
culoare-	color
cultură-	culture
curte-	court
cuvîntu-(cuvinte)	word
daru-(uri)	gift
dealu-(uri)	hill
dimineaţă-	morning
dinte-	tooth
doamnă-(e)	lady
domnu-	gentleman
drag- (adj)	dear
dreptu-(uri)	right
drumu-(uri)	road
erou-	hero
famílie-	family
fată-(fete)	girl
femeie-	woman
fereastră-(e)	window
fiu-	son
floare-	flower
frate-	brother
frumos- (adj)	beautiful
gîndu-(uri)	thought
glasu-(uri)	voice
glumă-(e)	joke
gradu-(e)	degree
grădină-	garden
greşeală-	mistake
gre- (adj)	difficult, heavy
grijă-	care, worry

guvernu-(e)	government
háină-(e)	coat, clothes (pl)
iarnă-(ierni)	winter
idee-	idea
iéftin- (adj)	cheap
înimă-	heart
interesu-(e)	interest
interesant (adj)	interesting
istórie-	history
izvoru-(e)	source
înalt- (adj)	high, tall
întreg- (adj)	whole
lapte-m	milk
lege-	law
limbă-	language
línie-	line
locu-(uri)	place
lucru-(uri)	thing, work
lume-	world, people
lumină-	light
lună-	month, moon
lung- (adj)	long
luptă-(e)	struggle
magazinu-(e)	store
mamă-(e)	mother
mare-	sea
mare- (adj)	large, big, great
masă-(mese)	table
maşină-	car, machine
măsură-	measure
médicu-	doctor
metodă-(e)	method
mic- (adj)	small, little
mie-	thousand
mijlocu-(e)	means
mînă-(mîini)	hand
moarte-	death
motivu-(e)	reason
munte-	mountain
muzeu-(e)	museum
natură-	nature
nebun- (adj)	crazy
negr- (adj)	black
nevoie-	need
noapte-	night
no- (adj)	new
númăru-(númere)	number
nume-(e)	name
obiceiu-(uri)	custom
ochiu-	eye
omu-(oámeni)	man
óperă-(e)	work
oraşu-(e)	city
oră-(e)	hour
pace-	peace
pasu-	step
patu-(uri)	bed
părinte-m	parent
perete-m	wall
persoană-(e)	person
piatră-(pietre)	stone
picior-(e)	foot, leg
pisică-	cat
ploaie-	rain
poartă-	gate
poetu-	poet
popă-	priest
popor-(e)	people
preţu-(uri)	price
priétenu-	friend
prileju-(e)	occasion
prim- (adj)	first
princîpiu-	principle
problemă-(e)	problem
profesoru-	professor
punctu-(e)	point
războiu-(e)	war
rege-	king
regiune-	region
rîndu-(uri)	row, line
rîu-(uri)	river
românu-	Romanian
sală-	room, hall
satu-(e)	village
săptămînă-	week
sărac- (adj)	poor
scopu-(uri)	purpose
scrisoare-	letter
scump- (adj)	expensive

seară- evening
sécolu-(e) century
semnu-(e) sign
servíciu- service
sfatu-(uri) advice
simpátic- (adj) nice
situáţie- situation
sînge- blood
soare-$_m$ sun
soldatu- soldier
soră-(surori) sister
soţie- wife
statu-(e) state
sté(a)- star
sticlă-(e) bottle
stradă- street
străinu- foreigner
stúdiu- study
súfletu-(e) soul

şcoală- school
şefu- chief
şose(a)- avenue

tablou-(uri) picture
tată- father
teatru-(e) theatre
timpu-(uri) time
tînăru-(tîneri) young person
treabă-(uri) task, job
trenu-(uri) train

ţară- land, country

últim- (adj) last
unchiu- uncle
ureche- ear
uşă- door
uşor- (adj) easy, light

vară-(veri) summer
vechi- (adj) old
viaţă-(vieţi) life
vinu-(uri) wine
visu-(uri) dream
vîntu-(uri) wind
vîrstă-(e) age
vreme-(uri) time, weather

zí- day
zidu-(uri) wall
zonă-(e) zone

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Academia Republicii Socialiste România, *Gramatica limbii române*, Vol. I Morfologia, Vol. II Sintaxa, Ediţia a II-a revăzută şi adăugită, Editura Academiei R.S.R., Bucureşti, 1966. The definitive, official modern grammar of standard Romanian, compiled by a team of Academy linguists headed by Academician Al. Graur. Based on literary usage and written on thoroughly traditional lines. Useful for reference only.

Agard, Frederick B., *Structural Sketch of Rumanian* [Language Monograph No. 26, Supplement to *Language* 34:3 (Part 2)], Linguistic Society of America, Baltimore, 1958. A phonological and morpho-syntactic study of modern Romanian based on the speech of educated native-speaking informants, supplemented with some contemporary textual materials. Employs the analytical and descriptive techniques of American structural linguistics, and is recommended only for students familiar with those techniques.

Augerot, J.E. and F.D. Popescu, *Modern Romanian*, University of Washington Press, Seattle, 1971. A thoroughly up-to-date audio-lingual course, the product of an attempt to apply current methods of language teaching to advanced university students. Pronunciation, dialogues, grammar notes, transformations and other drills. Second portion shifts emphasis to reading acquisition and provides many well-selected passages with notes and exercises.

Bantaş, Andrei, *Dicţionar de buzunar englez-român* and *Dicţionar de buzunar român-englez*, Editura Ştiinţifică, Bucureşti, 1969. These two bilingual dictionaries, bound in a single volume far larger than pocket size, are probably the most useful and reliable currently available.

Cazacu, Boris, et al., *A Course in Contemporary Romanian*, Editura Didactică şi Pedagogică, Bucureşti, 1969. The result of experience in teaching Romanian to foreign students at the University of Bucharest Summer Courses at Sinaia, this book is an attractively arranged and very thorough pedagogical presentation of the Academy *Gramatica*, enriched with phonological description, with dialogues for audio-lingual work, and with numerous exercises.

Guillermou, Alain, *Manuel de langue roumaine*, Librairie C. Klincksieck, Paris, 1953. Phonetic introduction, morpho-syntactic description (without exercises), and fourteen annotated texts of from one to two pages each. The annotations are very thorough, and this probably constitutes the most valuable section of the book, especially for an intermediate student.

Juilland, Alphonse, et al., *Frequency Dictionary of Rumanian Words*, Mouton & Co., The Hague, 1965. A tabulation by usage, frequency and dispersion of the 5000 most common lexical items of Romanian as extracted from a representative sample of more than 20,000 sentences totaling about 50,000 words.

Nandriş, Octave, *Colloquial Rumanian*, Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner & Co., London, 1961. A conventional introduction to Romanian phonology and grammar. Despite its title, not a good guide to current spoken usage. Has reading selections, but no useful exercises.

ROMANIAN GRAMMAR PAMPHLETS

James E. Augerot, Editor

II. ROMANIAN INTONATION AND STRESS

by

Robert L. Rankin

This work was developed pursuant to a contract between
the U.S. Office of Education and the Center for Applied Linguistics
(OEC-0-72-1588)

1973

PREFACE

These Romanian grammar pamphlets grew out of meetings held at the American Council of Learned Societies for the development of materials for Eastern European languages and subsequent funding by the U.S. Office of Education through the Center for Applied Linguistics. Priorities for language materials were established by polling most of those concerned with the teaching of Romanian in the United States. It was decided that, among other things, a series of grammar pamphlets, each treating specific problems and providing exercises, was the best way of attacking the shortage of materials for students beyond the first-year manuals. The pamphlets were thought useful because of the flexibility they would offer to a field in which teaching philosophies differed greatly from institution to institution and student needs beyond the first year course are also very disparate. The teacher of Romanian will have the opportunity to tailor his course to his students' needs using any number of the pamphlets in whatever order he determines to be most fruitful. Each pamphlet is basically independent of all the others, although there is some cross reference and the series has been arranged in an order suggesting the best use, all other things being equal. I would suggest that the teacher might find the first 3 pamphlets useful even before the first year of Romanian is completed. The remainder could very well serve as companion units to a second-year course that concentrates on readings and a refinement of the students' appreciation of finer points of Romanian grammar and expression. Eventually we hope to see more materials for advanced courses including a social science reader, more grammar pamphlets and a reference grammar, as well as a good dictionary.

Each pamphlet contains exercises appropriate to the materials and a brief bibliography for the enterprising student who wants to begin to make a serious study of the language.

The Editor takes full responsibility for the arrangement and the typography of the series. The particular theoretical approach and content of

each pamphlet varies considerably, however, and the individual authors remain responsible in these areas. We felt that this was not in any way detrimental in relation to the goals of the series. We included two of the pamphlets in the original Romanian. We realize that these will be somewhat difficult for the less advanced student, but he must begin to make the transition some time and these will help him to that end.

I thank Ms. Dorothy Rapp of the Center for Applied Linguistics for her always pleasant logistical assistance and to Ms. Kathleen Murphy, the project Secretary and in fact, although not in title, Assistant Editor, I owe a great deal. Professor Mircea Borcilă of the University of Cluj has been a constant and delightful consultant for things Romanian.

The titles and authors of the ten pamphlets in the recommended order are as follows:

I. SOME ROMANIAN DETERMINERS by Frederick B. Agard
II. ROMANIAN INTONATION AND STRESS by Robert L. Rankin
III. THE CONJUGATION OF THE ROMANIAN VERB by James E. Augerot
IV. PREPOSITIONS by Cornel Capuşan
V. POSSESSIVE AND DATIVE CONSTRUCTIONS IN ROMANIAN by Frederick B. Agard
VI. PRONUME ŞI FORME ENCLITICE by Anca Belchiţă Hartular
VII. PATTERNS OF SYNTAX IN ROMANIAN by Robert L. Rankin
VIII. NOUN CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN by James Algeo
IX. ADVERB CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN by James Algeo
X. STRUCTURA ETIMOLOGICĂ A VOCABULARULUI ROMÂNESC by Theodor Hristea

James E. Augerot
Editor
University of Washington
May 15, 1973

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface i

Table of Contents iii

1.0 Introduction 1

2.0 Terminology and notation 2

3.0 Review of word stress 4

4.0 Intonation contours 6

5.0 Review 11

Exercises 1-5 11

6.0 Sentence stress 14

7.0 Special problems with sentence stress in Romanian 20

Exercise 6 22

8.0 Further observations on stress and pitch of simple sentences .. 23

9.0 Compound and complex sentences 24

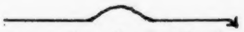
10.0 Summary and Conclusion 26

Bibliography 28

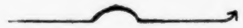
ROMANIAN INTONATION AND STRESS

1.0 Introduction. Some years ago as a student in a large Southern university I took a course in French phonetics designed to "perfect" my pronunciation of that language. The professor was an American but his command of French grammar was excellent, and all of his French "u"s and uvular "r"s etc. were perfect. There was only one problem. Whenever he spoke a whole sentence you knew right away that he was not French. His accent was as American as apple pie; this, in spite of his mastery of all the sounds of French. Why? As a student I was baffled; I only knew that something was wrong. It was not until several years later when I was studying linguistics that I finally put my finger on the problem. When my instructor spoke, the sounds were French; but the rising and falling of his voice -- his intonation -- and the degrees of loudness he used to emphasize certain words were English. The result was an immediately obvious "American accent".

1.1 Intonation and stress are often relatively neglected in foreign language study. The above anecdote illustrates one reason why they should not be, but there are other reasons. The speaker of Romanian conveys a great deal of information through changes of pitch in a sentence. Some of the information is grammatical, e.g., whether an utterance is a statement or a question.



Va plouă astăzi. It's going to rain today.



Va plouă astăzi? Is it going to rain today?

Some of the information is more emotive than grammatical. The speaker tells you through stress and intonation whether he is irritated, embarrassed, contented, excited, putting you on, etc.

In this pamphlet we will be concerned mainly with the former category, grammatical intonation, but will touch on its emotive uses as well. We will also deal with the use of *stress* or increased loudness for emphasis of important words in sentences. As we shall see, there is often a close correlation between loud stress and higher pitch (intonation).

2.0 Terminology and notation. Introduction of a few simple terms will suffice to carry you through most of the discussion and explanation that follows as well as through much of the technical literature on the subject. Whenever a technical term is introduced, the Romanian equivalent will be given in translation so that you will be able to refer to primary sources as you continue your study of the language. The Romanian equivalents will be enclosed in parentheses.

2.1 Stress *(accent, accentul de intensitate)*. Stress is produced by pronouncing one syllable louder than its neighbors. In Romanian, as in many languages including English, there are two different kinds, or perhaps more accurately, two different *uses* of stress. There is word stress and there is sentence stress.

2.2 Word stress. In any polysyllabic Romanian word one syllable will possess significantly greater amplitude; in other words it will be the stressed syllable. For most words it is posssible to predict on which syllable stress will fall, but such is not always the case. There are many pairs of words which differ only with regard to stress, e.g. *cópii* and *copíi.*

Cîte cópii aveţi?	How many copies do you have?
Cîţi copíi aveţi?	How many children do you have?

Word stress is discussed in most elementary textbooks and does not usually trouble the student (except that he must learn it along with vocabulary). We will review it in the next section, however. For the time being we will follow the practice of writing an accent mark, ´ , over each stressed vowel.

2.3 Sentence stress *(accentul propoziţiei, accentul frazei)*. The function of sentence stress is to accentuate, to bring into relief, elements in a sentence that the speaker considers important. Nouns, verbs, adjectives, interjections or adverbs may be highlighted by use of sentence stress. To stress a word or words in a sentence you merely pronounce the normally accented syllable of that word with even greater energy. In principle, then, sentence stress in Romanian operates just like sentence stress in English. There are important differences of detail, however, that must be mastered if you are to have a really good "Romanian accent". We will mark sentence stress by underlining the word(s) which bear it. For example:

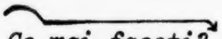
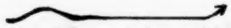
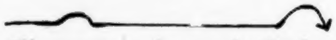
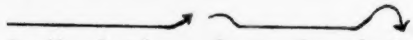
Şi tu poţi veni cu noi.	And you can come with us.
Şi tu poţi veni cu noi.	You can come with us too.
Şi tu poţi veni cu noi.	And you can come with us.

Note that while word and sentence stress are similar in terms of what you must do in order to produce them, they are very different in terms of their use and origin. Word stress is an inherent characteristic of a word just like its vowels and consonants; it can not be moved about for emphasis, etc. as noted above.

2.4 Intonation *(intonaţie)*. Intonation refers to changes in the pitch of the voice while speaking. Syllables that bear sentence stress are normally higher pitched in addition to simply being louder. This facet of intonation is predictable and follows the English pattern to a large degree. If you know what syllables are stressed, you know that the same ones are slightly higher pitched.

There is another use of pitch, however, which is not predictable. Rising, falling or, less often, level-trailing pitch is used at the end of a phrase, clause or sentence to show whether or not the utterance is a statement, question etc., or to show the relationship of the phrase or other subordinated element to the rest of the sentence (see examples, 1.1, above).

We will mark intonation by drawing a line above sentences to show the relevant changes in pitch. For example:

 *Ce mai faceţi?*	How are you?
 *Aveţi o ţigară?*	Got a cigarette?
 *Să mergem la cofetărie.*	Let's go to the coffee shop.
 *Dacă ai timp, du-te la piaţă.*	If you have time, go to the market.

3.0 Review of word stress. Because stress and intonation are so closely connected we review the general principles of stress briefly here.

3.1 In words of more than one syllable there is one potentially stressed vowel. As pointed out above, there is absolutely no reliable way of predicting which vowel this will be. The most general rule: If a word ends in a vowel, stress the next-to-last vowel; if it ends in a consonant, stress the last vowel. Thus we have:

cămásă	shirt	*cî́ntă*	he sings
lápte	milk	*glúmă*	joke
acólo	there	*treábă*	business
soţíe	wife	*foárte*	very

And ending with consonants:

picióŗ	foot	*pescărúş*	sea gull
bătrî́n	old man, old	*muncitór*	laborer
		vorbésc	I speak
zburát	flown	*făgét*	beech grove
cîntắm	we sing		

3.2 Most masculine singular nouns fall into this latter category as do a number of verb forms. These originally ended in a *-u* which has disappeared. It reappears, however, when the definite article *-l* is added, and we see that the examples above all belong to one large class which accents the next-to-last vowel.

Similarly with nouns and verbs ending in *-i*. The *-i* in this case counts as a syllabic vowel even though it is no longer fully pronounced:

cămắşi	shirts	*românî́*	Romanians
vorbî́ţi	you speak	*lucrézi*	you work

3.3 Stress does not shift when further inflectional endings are added to nouns, verbs, and adjectives. Thus many inflected forms, especially noun and adjective plurals with the definite articles, appear to contravene the general stress rule:

cămáşa	the shirt	*tî́mpul*	the time, verb tense
cămắşile	the shirts		
cămắşilor	the shirts'	*tî́mpurile*	the tenses
		tî́mpurilor	the tenses'

When non-inflectional suffixes are added, however, the stress often shifts onto the suffix. The most common suffixes of this type make diminutives or augmentatives, e.g. *óm* 'man', *omuléţ* 'little man'. Others often change the part of speech of a word or modify its meaning in other ways.

3.5 Other exceptions to the stress rules fall into several categories.

(a) The infinitives of all verbs except those of the third conjugation stress the final vowel:

învăţá	to learn	*vorbí*	to speak
lucrá	to work	*dormí*	to sleep
puteá	to be able	*hotărî́*	to decide

(b) Third conjugation verbs always stress the next-to-last vowel in their infinitive form:

fáce	to do	*spúne*	to tell
zíce	to say	*adúce*	to lead

(c) Words ending in *-ea* are generally stressed on the final vowel provided that the final *-a* is *not* the definite article.

cafeá	coffee	*viţeá*	female calf
şoseá	highway	*steá*	star
măseá	jaw	*căţeá*	female puppy

(d) Other classes of exceptions include most of the imperfect and perfect tense forms of verbs.

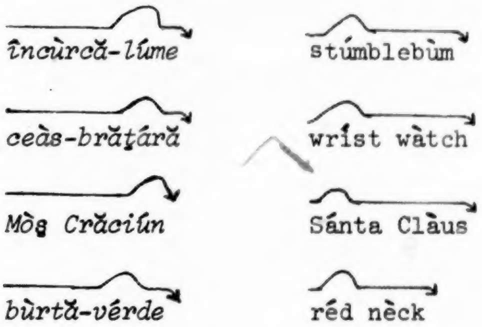
3.6 A fairly large subclass of words stress the vowel(s) preceding the next to last. For the most part these words simply have to be memorized. A few examples:

lácrimă	tear	*fắbrică*	factory
şurubélniţă	screwdriver	*vếveriţă*	squirrel

The numerals eleven through nineteen are irregular in this way, and much discussion can be avoided if they are learned by heart.

3.7 Stress in compounds. Compound words are much less common in Romanian than in English. The few that there are all have the same accentual pattern. The strongest stress falls on the normally accented syllable of the second word, while the normally accented syllable of the first word receives weaker stress. Note that this pattern is the *opposite* of the most common stress pattern for English compounds in which the first word receives the heavier stress (a deeper analysis reveals that the modifying element is the one that receives the stronger stress in both languages). Both languages commonly assign a higher pitch (intonation contour) to the more heavily stressed word.

Compare the following Romanian compounds with their colloquial (and compound) English equivalents (weaker stress is written ̀):



încùrcă-lúme	stúmblebùm
ceàs-brățáră	wríst wàtch
Mòș Crăciún	Sánta Clàus
bùrtă-vérde	réd nèck

4.0 Intonation contours. As pointed out above (2.4) Romanian sentences have various intonation patterns. When an important word is accentuated in a sentence it receives higher pitch predictably, along with louder stress. Rise or fall of pitch at the end of a phrase, sentence etc., however, is not tied to stress and should be mastered at once. These kinds of rise or fall in pitch will be called terminal contours. It is easiest to begin with very short sentences. You should become aware of the patterns even though, at this stage, they are quite similar to those of English.

4.1 Terminal contours. There are two very basic terminal contours in Romanian: Rising and falling. Most generally, rising intonation at the end of a sentence marks a question for which a "yes" or "no" answer is either possible or expected. Falling intonation usually marks a statement or command or a question containing a "question word".

4.2 Rising intonation. Pitch rises beginning with the normally stressed syllable of the last word in the sentence. It continues to rise until the end of the utterance. Some short examples:

Avêţi?	Do you have (any)?
Dorîţi?	Would you like to?
Lâtră?	Does (he) bark?
Vorbêşte?	Does (he) speak?
Vorbêşte mûlt?	Does he talk a lot?

Longer examples are not really different from the short ones. Although there may be a small rise in the pitch of stressed syllables or a somewhat longer rise for the stressed syllable of accentuated words, the question intonation comes at the very end no matter what word appears there.

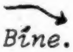
Avêţi salâtă de vînete?
Do you have eggplant salad?

Dorîţi salâtă de castravêţi şi rôşii cu oţêt?
Would you like the cucumber and tomato salad with vinegar?

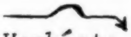
Vrêi să mêrgi la piêsă cu mîne jôi seâra după cînă?
Would you like to go to the play with me Thursday evening after dinner?

N-âveţi un cîine care lâtră mûlt?
Don't you have a dog that barks a lot?

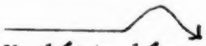
4.3 **Falling intonation:** Statements. Pitch begins to fall on the stressed syllable of the last word in the sentence. If more (stressed) syllables follow they are low pitched. If the last syllable is itself stressed, pitch will usually rise slightly and then fall off abruptly. Some short examples:



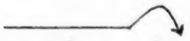
Bíne. O.K.



Vorbéşte. (He, she) is talking.



Vorbéşte bíne. (He, she) speaks well.



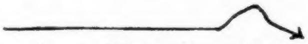
Vorbéşte múlt.[1] (He, she) talks a lot.

Again, longer examples are similar with regard to terminal contour. Of course, with longer sentences two other problems may arise:

(a) One or more words may be accentuated by the speaker, i.e. receive sentence stress and the normally accompanying rise in pitch.

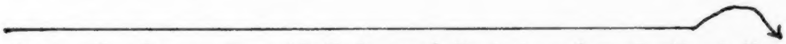
(b) There may be independent coordinated or subordinated elements which have their own terminal contour.

Both of these possibilities will be discussed in detail below. Neither affects the final terminal contour itself. Longer examples:



Avém salátă de vínete.

We have eggplant salad.



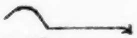
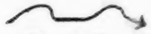
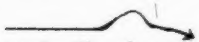
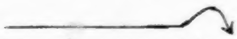
Vrem să mérgem la piésă împreúnă joi seára după cină.

We want to go to the play together Thursday evening after dinner.

4.4 Falling intonation: Imperatives. Imperatives follow the same pattern as declaratives. This is true whether the imperative is direct or indirect, polite or brusque. Because of the nature of imperatives, there is a greater likelihood of emphasis on one or another word and resultant sentence stress on that element. Examples of imperatives:

---

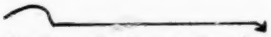
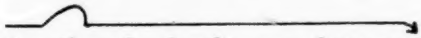
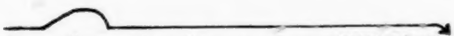
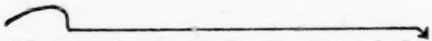
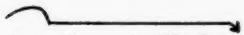
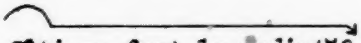
[1] Whether or not the pitch actually rises will depend on the amount of attention the speaker wishes to draw to the word. Vasiliu (1965:82) states that while stress need not be accompanied by high pitch, high pitch (excluding the rising intonation of terminal contours) is always accompanied by stress.

 *Ştérge-o!*	Scram!
 *Adú ziárul.*	Bring the newspaper.
 *Hai să mérgem.*	Let's go.
 *Vă róg să citíţi.*	Please read.

4.5 Falling intonation: Questions with question words. This type of question contains an interrogative pronoun or adverb and requires an answer other than the "yes" or "no" type. The "question words" are given here with their most common meanings (they have others) for review.

ce	what	*cînd*	when
cum	how	*cît*	how much
de cé	why	*cîte, cîţi*	how many
pentru cé	why, what for	*care*	which
unde	where	*cine, pe cíne*	who, whom

Interrogative words of this kind always take sentence stress and high pitch. Note that accentuation of the question word is *not* the pattern in English. (We often stress the verb.)

 *Únde ai fost ieri?*	Where were you yesterday?
 *De cé aţi plecát aşa devreme?*	Why did you leave so early?
 *Pe cíne ai pişcat la grădiníţă?*	Who(m) did you pinch at kindergarten?
 *Cînd aţi aterizát la Otopéni?*	When did you land at Otopeni (airport)?
 *Ce-ai mai făcút?*	How've you been?
 *Cîţi au fost la şedinţă?*	How many were there at the meeting?

Cúm dai cartófii?	How much are potatoes?
Cît e ceásul?	What time is it?
Cáre echípă are să cîștíge?	Which team is going to win?
Cíne știe s-o facă?	Who knows how to do it?

To demonstrate that it is the interrogative function of these words that attracts pitch and stress (and governs the terminal contour), compare the above sentences with the following examples in which the same words are used with a different function.

Știi pe cíne am văzút ástăzi?	Know who I saw today?
Poți ghicí de ce ne oprím?	Can you guess why we're stopping?
Spúne-mi ce crézi.	Tell me what you think.
but: *Spúne-mi. Cé crezi?*	Tell me. What do you think?

4.6 Question words and the contrast between rising and falling terminal contours. Question words are frequently used alone to form one word sentences. As such, they combine their usual high pitch with the falling terminal contour that normally characterizes such questions. For example

Cum? How? *Únde?* Where?

The same words may also be used with rising intonation. In such uses the meaning is different. A question word with a rising contour usually expresses either a request for a repetition of something or incredulity and surprise on the part of the speaker. In the latter case, heavy stress, extra length, and extra high pitch are present. Note that in some cases the meaning of the word may change with reference to English.

Simple Question		Request for repetition		Astonishment	
Cum?	How?	*Cum?*	How again? What'd you say?	*Cum?*	What?
Cíne?	Who?	*Cíne?*	Who? Who was that?	*Cíne?!*	Who?
De cé?	Why?	*De cé?*	Why was that again?	*De cé?!*	Why?!
Únde?	Where?	*Únde?*	Where was that?	etc.	

5.0 **Review.** So far we have covered the following topics:

(a) The basic uses, grammatical and stylistic, of stress and intonation.

(b) How stress and intonation work physically, i.e. loudness and pitch of voice.

(c) Review of word stress and stress on compounds; stress is an inherent characteristic of words and is essentially unmovable although it is occasionally attracted to some suffixes.

(d) Intonation (terminal) contours for simple sentences.

  (1) Rising. Yes/no question intonation.

  (2) Falling. Statement and imperative intonation.

  (3) Falling. Questions containing question words.

  (4) Special cases with question words.

Exercise 1. Make questions of the following statements by changing the intonation pattern to give the proper terminal contour. Read them out loud for practice.

(a) *Ion a putut vorbi cu Maria.*
John was able to talk with Mary.

(b) *Doamna Popescu i-a cumpărat o sticlă cu vin.*
Mrs. Popescu bought him a bottle of wine.

(c) *Nu mănîncă mult fiindcă este bolnav.*
He doesn't eat much because he's sick.

(d) *Ii plac mult sarmalele.*
He likes sarmale (stuffed cabbage leaves) alot.

(e) *Ion preferă apă minerală.*
John prefers mineral water.

(f) *A zis că vine la ora trei.*
She said she's coming at three o'clock.

(g) *Este studentă la specializare.*
She is a graduate student.

(h) *Studiază literatura franceză.*
She studies French literature.

(i) *Tatăl ei s-a născut în Franţa.*
Her father was born in France.

(j) *A studiat un an de zile la Paris.*
She stayed a whole year in Paris.

Exercise 2. Make questions of the above *English* sentences (mentally) also. Note that whereas in Romanian, intonation is the normal way to transform statements into questions, in English the inversion of subject and verb is common, as is the use of the verb *do*. There are intonational changes in English also.

Exercise 3. If you feel you need more practice, go through the ten sentences of Exercise 1 again and change all of the examples to the first person singular, then the second person etc. Be sure to make all of the verbs, adjectives etc. agree properly for gender and number.

Exercise 4. Apply the correct intonation to th[illegible]owing questions. Read them aloud.

(a) *Ai cumpărat o carte la anticariat?*
Did you buy a book at the used book store?

(b) *Unde ai cumpărat cartea asta?*
Where did you buy that book?

(c) *Trebuie să plăteşti mult?*
Do you have to pay alot?

(d) *Aveţi un pisoi alb cu negru?*
Do you have a black and white tomcat?

(e) *Cum e pisoiul dumneavoastră?*
What color is your tomcat?

(f) *Mai umbli la fete?*
Still messing around with the girls?

(g) *Care din prietenele tale e cea mai frumoasă?*
Which one of your (girl) friends is the prettiest?

(h) *Ai răspuns la întrebarea profesorului?*
Did you answer the professor's question?

(i) *Ce ai răspuns?*
What did you answer?

Exercise 5. Read the following dialogue aloud concentrating on the intonational patterns.

Bună ziua. Ce serviţi astăzi?	Good afternoon. What'll it be today?
Bună ziua. Cred că începem cu ciorbă de perişoare.	Good afternoon. I think we will start with the meatball soup.
Bine. Şi pe urmă?	Fine. And then?
Ce fel de salată aveţi azi?	What kind of salad do you have today?
Avem salată de vinete.	We have eggplant salad.

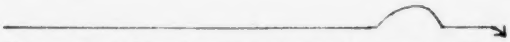
Numai atît?	Is that all?
Avem icre cu pîine şi unt.	We have caviar with bread and butter.
Cum sînt?	How is it?
Sînt icre de crap. Şi-s foarte bune.	It's carp caviar. And it's very good.
Bine. Icre de două ori.	O.K. Two orders of caviar.
Foarte bine. Şi mititei doriţi?	Great. And would you like sausages?
Nu. Astăzi cred că vom lua un pilaf cu ciuperci.	No. Today I think we'll have (the) mushrooms with rice.
Cum? Pilaf?	What was that? Pilaf (rice)?
Da. Şi apoi o cafea turcească.	Yes. And afterward a Turkish coffee.
Vin imediat cu ciorba.	I'll be back presently with the soup.

5.2 Further exercises may be made up by the student from the dialogues found in the early chapters of most elementary Romanian language textbooks. Augerot (1971) and Cazacu (1967) are especially good in this regard as they are accompanied by recordings which eliminate the need for constant access to a native speaker.

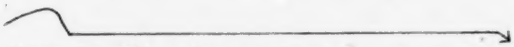
6.0 Sentence stress. In the preceding sections we have covered the most basic stress and intonation patterns of Romanian. The remainder of these materials will deal with the problems of contrast and emphasis, compound and complex sentences, and minor patterns; first the question of sentence stress resulting from the emphasis of particular words.

As pointed out above (2.3), desire on the part of the speaker to contrast or otherwise emphasize certain words in an utterance results in those words receiving sentence stress and, normally, higher pitch. The Romanian pronunciation habit is not difficult to acquire, since we do the same thing in English. The chief problem for students stems from the fact that the two sets of habits do not coincide perfectly. This has already been shown in the case of questions words, which attract word stress in Romanian but not in English (4.5), and in the case of compounds, which characteristically stress different syllables in the two languages. Before taking up the differences, which are relatively few, we shall review the similarities.

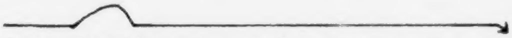
6.1 Note the pattern of contrastive sentence stress and pitch in the following English sentences:



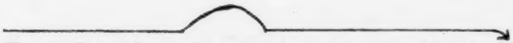
Neutral: Your brother knows how to read now.



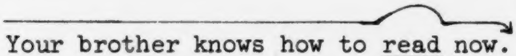
Contrasting: *Your* brother knows how to read now.
(Not someone else's brother etc.)



Your *brother* knows how to read now.
(Not your sister, uncle etc.)

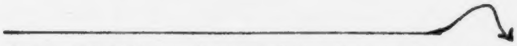


Your brother *knows* how to read now.
(He's not just learning etc.)



Your brother knows how to *read* now.
(Surprise! He wasn't expected to know.)

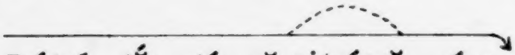
Falling intonation on "now" indicates that this is a complete statement, whereas a trailing or slightly rising terminal contour would leave the implication that there was still something lacking in "your brother's" ability, e.g. "Your brother knows how to *read* now...but he can't write yet".



Your brother knows how to read *now*.
(Rather than at some other time.)

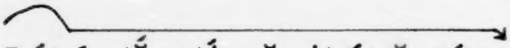
Emphasis may be focused on any major component of the sentence; the subject, verb, or object etc. Most frequently the stressed word is a member of one of the major parts of speech: nouns, verbs, adjectives, or adverbs; however, pronouns, conjunctions and prepositions may also be stressed. Stressed subject pronouns are more frequent in English than Romanian, however, since the mere presence of these (personal) pronouns in Romanian indicates emphasis. In many neutral statements they are simply omitted, since context and verb endings systematically indicate the person and number of the subject.

6.2 The Romanian equivalents of the above sentences show a similar pattern.

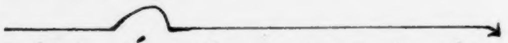


Neutral: *Frâtele tắu ştíe să citeáscă acúma.*

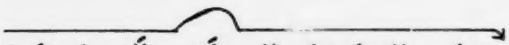
The dotted line indicates that (as in English) a *slight* rise in pitch is possible on the word *citeáscă* 'read'. With the neutral connotation, however, it does not bear the heavy stress and/or higher pitch.



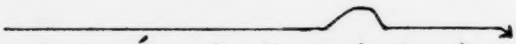
Contrasting: *Frâtele tắu ştíe să citeáscă acúma.*



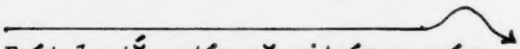
Frâtele tắu ştíe să citeáscă acúma.



Frâtele tắu ştíe să citeáscă acúma.

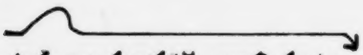


Frâtele tắu ştíe să citeáscă acúma.

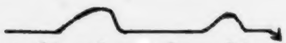


Frâtele tắu ştíe să citeásca acúma.

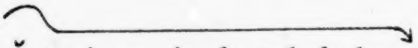
The above examples illustrate the use of *contrastive* stress stemming from the emphasis of one or another element. As in English, many kinds of words seem to attract emphasis, but this emphasis may not be as strong (in terms of pitch and stress) as when alternatives are contrasted. A milder "focus stress" is possible. The next group of examples illustrates this. Note that when the speaker wishes to focus on part of a sentence (but not exaggerate it) that it is often a demonstrative word of some kind (pronoun, adjective, adverb) which is actually stressed.



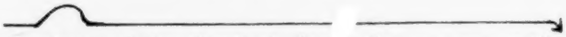
Aşă se învắţă românéşte. This is the way to learn Romanian.



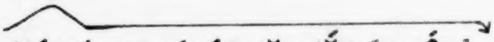
Stăi aicea în cólţ. Stand here in the corner.



Ăsta-i un vin destul de bun. This is a fairly good wine.

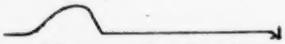


Aceásta éste legitimáția dumneavoastră. This is your identity card.

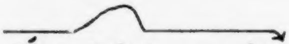


Atúnci a trebuít să stắm la rî́nd. Then we had to stand in line.

Words like *foarte* 'very' or the more colloquial *tare* 'very, real', of course, also attract emphasis.



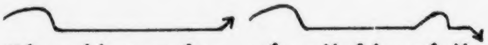
E táre cald ástăzi. It's real hot today.



Sî́nt foárte ocupát. I'm awfully busy.

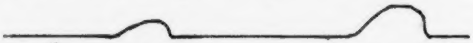
6.4 Stressed conjunctions, prepositions and pronouns. These categories are much less frequently stressed than in English but occasionally receive emphasis.

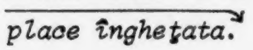
The Romanian Academy's grammar (vol. II, 1966; 470-71) lists a few instances of stressed conjunctions. The first, "either" and "or", pattern similarly to the English. The conjunctions may be stressed but need not be.



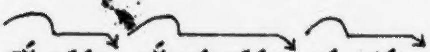
Sáu vii cu míne, sáu rămî́i acásă. Either you can come along with me, or you can stay home.

Similarly, with *deșí* 'although'.



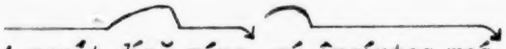
Mănî́nca númai ciocolată, deșí îi Although she (does) like ice cream, she'll

place înghețata. only eat chocolate.

Even *să* (classified as a conjunction, *ibid.*; 471) may be stressed, but the English translation contains no conjunction. Vacillation between two difficult choices is expressed here. Otherwise, *să* is never stressed.

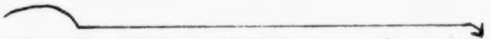


Să pléc, să nú pléc, nú știu. Should I leave, shouldn't I leave, I don't know.

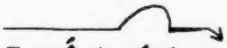
6.5 Stressed prepositions occur rarely. Examples from the Academy grammar (vol II; 471):



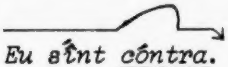
A venît dúpă míne, nú înaíntea meá. He came after me, not before.



Cíne éste de acórd cu propúnerea? Who is in favor of the proposal?



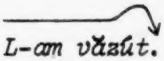
Eu sînt péntru. I'm for.



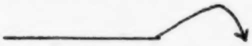
Eu sînt cóntra. I'm against.

6.6 Stressed pronouns require some comment. Romanian pronouns fall into several categories with respect to sentence stress.

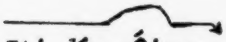
(a) Enclitic pronouns, the short direct and indirect object and reflexive pronouns placed just before the verb in Romanian, may *never* be stressed. If emphasis is desired, the pronoun must be accompanied by its stressed form elsewhere in the sentence.



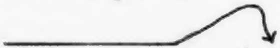
L-am văzút. I saw him.



L-am văzút pe él. I saw him.



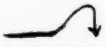
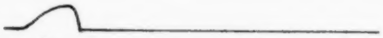
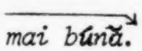
Iti dáu pîinea. I'll give you the bread.



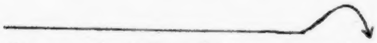
Iţi dáu pîinea ţíe. I'll give you the bread.

The distinction between stressed and unstressed pronouns is treated elsewhere. Lists of these pronouns may be found in any good Romanian grammar.

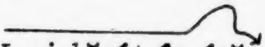
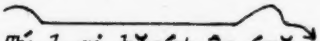
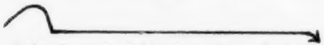
(b) Non-clitic, independent pronouns may be emphasized as in English unless they are the personal, subject pronouns. The subject pronouns may also be stressed, but they constitute a special class (see below 6.6c).

 *E cevá!*	(It's) really something (or a lot).
 *Acéasta este orchêstra cea*  *mai búnă.*	That (one) is the very finest orchestra.

Negative pronouns (nobody, nothing, etc.) are commonly stressed but are discussed below. The possessive pronouns preceded by *al, a, ai, ale* may also be stressed.

 *Cea mai frumoásă e a meá.*	The prettiest one's mine.

c) Personal pronouns used as subjects (*eu, tu, el, ea, noi, voi, ei, ele*) are usually lacking since context and verb inflection make them unnecessary. Occasionally they are needed to clarify the gender or number of the subject. Other times, their very presence implies a certain degree of emphasis. Occurence of sentence stress and high pitch with these pronouns provides contrast or exclamatory emphasis.

 *L-ai băgât în ápă.*	You put it in the water.
 *Tú l-ai băgât în ápă.*	You put it in the water.
 *Tú l-ai băgât în ápă!*	It was you that put it in the water!

The polite forms of the second person pronouns *(dumneatá, dumeavoastră)* may also be stressed.

6.7 Since the use of stress and pitch in this section is similar to English usage no exercises are included at this point. The student *should* practice the patterns, however, and this may be done with the help of any of the grammars in common use. Before reading dialogues from these sources aloud though, the next section should be read, since it deals specifically with points at which Romanian and English patterns diverge.

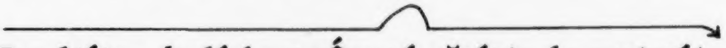
7.0 There are several specific problems with Romanian sentence stress that the student should be aware of. These include treatment of negative sentences, sentences which in English have stressed auxiliary verbs, and certain Romanian words which tend to attract stress.

7.1 Negation. Sentence stress and high pitch are attracted to negative words in Romanian. Such sentences in English often stress the negated verb rather than *no* or *not*. If the negative word bears the stress in English, strong emphasis is intended. In Romanian the same strong emphasis is conveyed by extra high pitch.

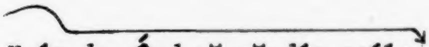
nu, n-	no, not	*níci*	neither, not even
nimíc	nothing	*niciodátă*	never
nímeni	no one	*nicidecúm*	in no way, "nohow"
nicăiéri	nowhere	*de lóc,* *de fél*	(not) at all

If the sentence contains only one negative, it will bear the stress. If *nu* is not used emphatically it may combine with a following auxiliary (from *a avea*), in which case the first vowel of the auxiliary receives stress. Otherwise the auxiliary is not stressed (see below).

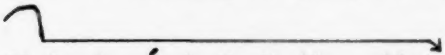
If the sentence contains a negative word besides *nu*, the other negative bears the stress. If there are several negative words other than *nu*, they bear more or less equal stress. Note the following examples:



Facultátea de límba romấna nú găséşte la rectorát.
The Romanian language department isn't at the Rectorate
(Administration Building).



N-ám de gî́nd să mă dúc acólo.
I'm not thinking of going there.



Nú ám de gî́nd să mă dúc acólo!
I'm not thinking of going there!

N-am de gînd să mă dúc acólo de loc.

I'm not thinking of going there at all.

Antricót nú mai éste.

We're out of steak.

Nú fáce nimíc.

It doesn't matter.

Nímeni nu e profet în țára lúi.

No man is a prophet in his own country.

Níci în rúptul cắpului!

Not on your life!

Nímeni nu ștíe nimíc níciodátă.

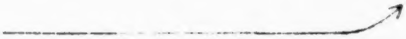
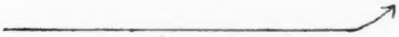
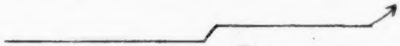
Nobody ever knows anything.

or: *Nímeni nu ștíe nimíc níciodátă!* (With sustained high pitch rising to extra high before the dropping terminal contour; this indicates irritation on the part of the speaker.)

7.2 Questions containing negatives follow a different pattern still. Question words take precedence over negative words and attract the stress and higher pitch.

De cé nú mi-ai scrís?	Why haven't you written me?
Cáre mașínă nu pornéște?	Which car won't start?

Negatives normally lose their stress and pitch in yes/no questions also, unless the speaker wishes especially to emphasize negation.

 *Nú vrei să mergem la Snagov?*	Don't you want to go to Snagov?
 *N-ái fóst niciodátă la Cluj?*	Haven't you ever been to Cluj?
 but: *N-ái fóst niciodátă la Cluj?*	Haven't you ever been to Cluj?

(In the last example, the emphatic contour is superimposed on the normal one. See 6.1, above.)

Exercise 6. Translate the following sentences into Romanian. Be careful to separate the statements from the questions.

(a) I don't want coffee today.
(b) I don't ever (*niciodată*) drink tea.
(c) Ion didn't see any (*nici o*) pastry.
(d) Sanda doesn't know *anybody (nimeni)* here?
(e) Mr. Ionescu doesn't understand.
(f) He doesn't understand at all *(de loc)*.
(g) Why doesn't he understand at all?
(h) Isn't this store ever *(niciodată)* open?

7.3 English speakers very often stress the auxiliary verbs *have* and *do* to emphasize the action or time of action of the accompanying main verb. For example:

But I have finished my homework!

I do enjoy Romanian folk dances!

Had they finished work on the hotel when you left?

Did your husband get there in time for the show?

And the corresponding negative sentences:

> But I haven't finished my homework.

Emphatics such as these pattern entirely differently in Romanian; there is no equivalent at all of the English *do, did.* In Romanian the main verb may be stressed instead, or some other emphatic word or phrase may be added to bear the strong affirmative meaning. For example, phrases beginning with *într-adevăr* 'really, truly', or *sígur că...desígur* 'of course', *dejá* 'already', etc.

Similar circumlocutions may be used to avoid stressing the auxiliary forms of *a avea* in the past tense *(am, ai, a, am, aţi, au)*. The stressed forms of *have* are very common in English but not in Romanian.

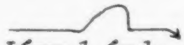
The negated forms of the English stressed auxiliaries are simple to render. In Romanian, the stress is always attracted to the negative particle *nú* or to another negative word. The auxiliary is stressed only when contracted with *nú (n-ám, n-ái, n-á, n-áu, n-áţi)*. This entire pattern is discussed above in 7.1. Other auxiliary verbs, the so-called modals (*can, could, may, must, might, should,* etc.), may bear sentence stress in both English and Romanian.

7.4 There are other methods of emphasizing certain elements in the Romanian sentence. The use of particles is common but falls outside the discussion of stress and intonation. Nonetheless the student should familiarize himself with the nuances of meaning that may be attained through the use of *mai, tot, da, şi, ba,* etc. They have a great many uses apart from their dictionary meanings.

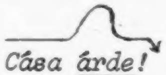
8.0 One or two more observations may be made about stress and pitch of simple sentences. In Romanian as in English there is a great deal of information carried by the nuances of pitch, pause, stress, etc. Some of it relates to the emotional state of the speaker, some of it to grammar and

and meaning, and some of it to both.

8.1 Of the three possible levels of pitch in Romanian, two are quite basic: low and high. Low pitch is the rule in normal conversation with high pitch occurring on the final word of the sentence as part of the terminal contour or on words receiving sentence stress. The third level of pitch, extra high, is used for strong contrast or heavy emphasis. A speaker may also simply substitute extra high pitch for high pitch and high pitch for low pitch, thereby raising each pitch level in the sentence one degree. This "raising of one's voice" usually just indicates increased agitation on the part of the speaker, just as in English. For example:

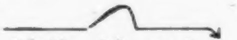


Low-high: *Lémnul árde.* The wood is burning.

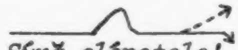


High-extra high: *Cása árde!* The house is on fire!

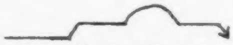
8.2 Raising of the entire pitch pattern by one degree is sometimes used to make a declarative sentence into an imperative (Agard, 1958: 124).



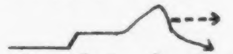
Súnă clópotele. The bells are ringing.



Súnă clópotele! Ring the bells!



Alergáţi répede. You run fast.



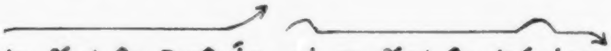
Alergáţi répede! Run fast!

If the student masters the regular uses of low and high pitch patterns, most of the uses of extra high pitch will handle themselves. Most often, extra high peaks occur with question words and negatives.

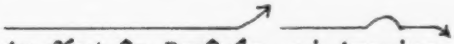
9.0 Compound and Complex sentences. Sentences containing one or more *other* sentences, either complete (coordinate) or in truncated form (subordinated), are traditionally termed compound and complex respectively. Naturally, when sentences are combined something happens to the stress and intonation pattern of or both (or all). If there is a *pause* between elements of a sentence a terminal contour is usually present at the pause. The kind of contour, rising or falling, depends on the kind of sentence.

The patterns are similar to English in most ways. The rules for accentuating the most important word(s) in the sentence hold for compound and complex sentences. A few general rules can be given for sentences containing pauses.

9.1 Statements (declaratives and imperatives). The most common pattern shows a slight rise in intonation (a rising contour) on the syllable preceding any sentence-internal pause. The final element bears normal statement intonation. This rule holds whether or not the structures are of equal grammatical rank.

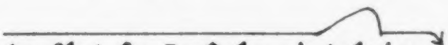


Am fóst în Românía, şi am fóst în América.
I've been to Romania, and I've been in America.



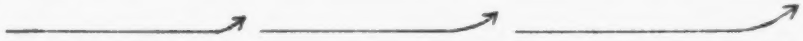
Am fóst în Românía, şi America.
I've been in Romania, and America.

If the sequence is spoken without a pause, there is no rise in pitch.

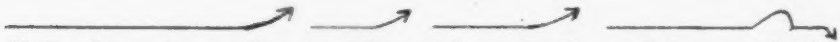


Am fóst în Românía şi América.
I've been in Romania and America.

The same pattern is found whether there is one or many pauses. Note the following list:



Aş vreá o salátă, o súpă de legúme, un antricót de vácă,



dóuă córnuri cu mére, o bére, şi pe úrmă, cafeá turceáscă.

I'd like a salad, vegetable soup, a rib steak, two apple turnovers, and then Turkish coffee.

The rising pitch does not indicate a yes/no question when the last element has falling intonation.

9.2 Another common pattern involves forms of direct address. The sentence, apart from the vocative, carries normal intonation. The vocative carries low pitch if it is placed at the end (Agard, 1958: 125).

Imi pare bîne, dómnule Ionéscu. Pleased to meet you, Mr. Ionescu.

Ai múlt de făcút, Ioáne. You've got a lot to do, John.

The dotted line above the first example above indicates a somewhat more cordial attitude on the part of the speaker.

9.3 If the form of direct address follows a yes/no question, steadily rising intonation is used.

Nú cumvá avéţi un ghíd turístic, domnişoáră?
Mightn't you have a tourist guide, miss?

Servíţi café-fíltru ástăzi, dómnilor?
Would you like café filtru today, gentlemen?

9.4 If a term of direct address follows a question with a question word steadily falling intonation is used.

De ce n-aţi terminat încă, Maria?
Why haven't you finished yet, Maria?

10.0 Summary and conclusion. This does not exhaust by any means the inventory of possible Romanian stress and intonation patterns, but it does cover much of the basic material. Close imitation of Romanian speakers is of great help in mastering pitch, and a native speaker or material recorded by a native Romanian is practically indispensible if your mastery is to be complete. You should be aware of pitch and stress after having worked through these materials. If you remain aware of them as you continue your study, and as you complete further grammatical exercises, you will have plenty of material for practice.

Intonation and stress, like any linguistic patterns, should simply be practiced by the learner until they are second nature. Trying to apply rules consciously leads to hesitancy and *lack* of fluency. For those who desire general rules, however, we include the following:

(a) If there is a question word or a negative in the sentence, stress and high pitch will most likely be attracted to these elements in Romanian. The question word will normally take precedence over the negative, i.e. it will receive the higher pitch and heavier stress.

(b) If you wish to emphasize a noun, verb, adjective, or other *major* part of speech, the same word will probably be stressed in Romanian as in English, provided that no negative or question word is present.

(c) If the auxiliary verb *do* or *did* is stressed in English, beware. There is no similar auxiliary in Romanian, and it will be necessary to rephrase. The word *too* also requires rephrasing, since the equivalent is often *şi*, placed before the element it normally follows in English.

(d) Pronouns often have stressed and unstressed forms. These must be learned and their usage mastered.

(e) Keep in mind the few basic sentence stress patterns of Romanian. Most of the patterns used with compound and complex sentences are similar to the corresponding English patterns.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Academia R.P.R. 1958. *Dicţionarul limbii romîne moderne.* Bucharest, Ed. Academiei. This one volume monolingual dictionary contains information on word stress and plural formation lacking in the most common bilingual dictionary.

Academia R.S.R. 1966. *Gramatica limbii române,* vols. I and II. Bucharest, Ed. Academiei. Extensive coverage of stress and intonation, vol. II, pp. 468-82, with bibliography.

Agard, Frederick B. 1958. *Structural Sketch of Rumanian.* Supplement to *Language,* vol. 34, no. 3. Baltimore, Waverly Press.

Augerot, James and Florin Popescu. 1971. *Modern Romanian.* Seattle, The University of Washington Press.

Austin, William M. and Frederick B. Agard. 1947. *Spoken Romanian* (as augmented). Unpublished U.S.A.F. mimeo, Syracuse University. Tapes accompany. Complete revision by F.B. Agard to appear in published form. (Spoken Language Services, Inc., 1973).

Cazacu, Boris, *et al.* 1967. *Cours de langue roumaine.* Bucharest, Ed. didactică şi pedagogică.

Nandriş, Grigore. 1953. *Colloquial Rumanian,* 2nd ed. London, Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Pop, Sever. 1948. *Grammaire roumaine.* Bibliotheque Romaina, Series prina, IV. Berne, A. Francke.

Rosetti, Alexandru. 1944. *Grammaire de la langue roumaine.* Bucharest.

Vasiliu, Emanuel. 1965. *Fonologia limbii române.* Bucharest, Ed. ştiinţifică. Good coverage of stress and intonation, pp. 67-82, with further bibliography.

ROMANIAN GRAMMAR PAMPHLETS

James E. Augerot, Editor

III. THE CONJUGATION OF THE ROMANIAN VERB

by

James E. Augerot

This work was developed pursuant to a contract between
the U.S. Office of Education and the Center for Applied Linguistics

(OEC-0-72-1588)

1973

PREFACE

These Romanian grammar pamphlets grew out of meetings held at the American Council of Learned Societies for the development of materials for Eastern European languages and subsequent funding by the U.S. Office of Education through the Center for Applied Linguistics. Priorities for language materials were established by polling most of those concerned with the teaching of Romanian in the United States. It was decided that, among other things, a series of grammar pamphlets, each treating specific problems and providing exercises, was the best way of attacking the shortage of materials for students beyond the first-year manuals. The pamphlets were thought useful because of the flexibility they would offer to a field in which teaching philosophies differed greatly from institution to institution and student needs beyond the first year course are also very disparate. The teacher of Romanian will have the opportunity to tailor his course to his students' needs using any number of the pamphlets in whatever order he determines to be most fruitful. Each pamphlet is basically independent of all the others, although there is some cross reference and the series has been arranged in an order suggesting the best use, all other things being equal. I would suggest that the teacher might find the first 3 pamphlets useful even before the first year of Romanian is completed. The remainder could very well serve as companion units to a second-year course that concentrates on readings and a refinement of the students' appreciation of finer points of Romanian grammar and expression. Eventually we hope to see more materials for advanced courses including a social science reader, more grammar pamphlets and a reference grammar, as well as a good dictionary.

Each pamphlet contains exercises appropriate to the materials and a brief bibliography for the enterprising student who wants to begin to make a serious study of the language.

The Editor takes full responsibility for the arrangement and the typography of the series. The particular theoretical approach and content of

each pamphlet varies considerably, however, and the individual authors remain responsible in these areas. We felt that this was not in any way detrimental in relation to the goals of the series. We included two of the pamphlets in the original Romanian. We realize that these will be somewhat difficult for the less advanced student, but he must begin to make the transition some time and these will help him to that end.

I thank Ms. Dorothy Rapp of the Center for Applied Linguistics for her always pleasant logistical assistance and to Ms. Kathleen Murphy, the project Secretary and in fact, although not in title, Assistant Editor, I owe a great deal. Professor Mircea Borcilă of the University of Cluj has been a constant and delightful consultant for things Romanian.

The titles and authors of the ten pamphlets in the recommended order are as follows:

I. SOME ROMANIAN DETERMINERS by Frederick B. Agard
II. ROMANIAN INTONATION AND STRESS by Robert L. Rankin
III. THE CONJUGATION OF THE ROMANIAN VERB by James E. Augerot
IV. PREPOSITIONS by Cornel Capuşan
V. POSSESSIVE AND DATIVE CONSTRUCTIONS IN ROMANIAN by Frederick B. Agard
VI. PRONUME ŞI FORME ENCLITICE by Anca Belchiţă Hartular
VII. PATTERNS OF SYNTAX IN ROMANIAN by Robert L. Rankin
VIII. NOUN CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN by James Algeo
IX. ADVERB CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN by James Algeo
X. STRUCTURA ETIMOLOGICĂ A VOCABULARULUI ROMÂNESC by Theodor Hristea

James E. Augerot
Editor
University of Washington
May 15, 1973

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface i
Table of Contents iii
1.0 Introduction 1
1.1 Conjugations 1
2.0 The present tense 3
Exercises 1-2 7
Exercises 3-4 13
3.0 The conjunctive 13
Exercise 5 16
4.0 The imperative 16
Exercise 6 18
5.0 The imperfect 18
Exercise 7 20
6.0 The simple past 20
Exercises 8-9 24
7.0 The pluperfect 25
Exercises 10-11 26
8.0 The infinitive 27
9.0 The past participle 28
Exercises 12-13 29
10.0 The present participle 30
Exercise 14 31
11.0 The future 31
12.0 The past conjunctive 32
13.0 The conditional 33
Summary of the structure of the verb 34
Summary of the rules 36
Glossary of verb stems 37
Bibliography 41

THE CONJUGATION OF THE ROMANIAN VERB

1.0 It is assumed that the student of Romanian who reads this grammar pamphlet will have a fairly good idea of the Romanian conjugation already. Here, we intend to systematize that knowledge and increase the student's confidence by a careful examination of the morphology of the Romanian verb. We shall take up a single tense at a time and look at it from three points of view: (a) regular formation, (b) irregular or exceptional forms, and (c) major uses with examples and exercises.

1.1 In Romanian, the infinitive of the verb provides us with a good starting point for the study of the conjugation, although it is clear that all forms in the various tenses are not predictable from the infinitive form alone. We shall begin with a short list of verbs that will provide us with a basis for classification of all other verbs in Romanian. In the Appendix the student will find a list of the stems of the most frequently used, as well as the more irregular verbs.

Examination of the infinitive forms immediately suggests four groups:

pleca
tăia
adresa
ploua
veghea
afla
plimba

fugi
citi
coborî
hotărî
pipăi
veni
zîmbi

face
duce
frînge
plînge
frige
teme
descrie

tăcea
vedea
apărea
încăpea
durea
zăcea
putea

These four groups can be characterized by the final vowels in each case: *-a*, *-i*, *(-î)*, *-e*, *-ea*. The many similarities in the last two groups (*face*, *tace*; *faceţi*, *tăceţi*; *făcut*, *tăcut*) lead us to a closer examination.

First, we cannot help but notice that no words in Romanian terminate in stressed /-é/. There are, however, many words ending in /-eá/. If we examine the various forms of these words along with others that also terminate in stressed vowels, an interesting fact can be deduced.

cățea	dog	*cățele*	dogs
stea	star	*stele*	stars
măsea	molar	*măsele*	molars
perdea	curtain	*perdele*	curtains
basma	scarf	*basmale*	scarves
mahala	suburb	*mahalale*	suburbs
baclava	baclava	*baclavale*	baclavas
zi	day	*zile*	days

All of these nouns may be said to form the plural with the addition of /-le/. It is to be noted that /-eá/ words have only /-éle/ in the plural. It is a fact that all nouns with stressed final vowels in Romanian form their plurals with /-le/. This, taken together with the fact that the final /eá/ also appears only finally in the verb forms, leads us to the generalization that the final /á/ is predictable in this position. Thus, in an abstract sense, we may say that there are no words that end in stressed /-eá/ in Romanian, only those in stressed /-é/, and there is a phonological process (rule) that automatically adds the /-á/ to such words to which no other ending is appended.[1] This allows us to collapse our four groups of verbs into three, each ending in a characteristic vowel: /-a, -i, -e/. Although the first two groups always end in a stressed vowel, the latter group has the peculiarity that some have stressed stems (*fáce, dúce,* etc.) and others, stressed endings (*tăcé-, vedé-,* etc.).

The so-called 'long-infinitive' in Romanian, now a noun without verbal force at least syntactically, reinforces our claim.

putea	be able	*putere*	power
tăcea	be quiet	*tăcere*	silence
durea	hurt	*durere*	pain

These forms show that the /-á/ is not a permanent part of the 'short-infinitive' but only the phonological phenomenon that we have described above.

---

[1] The definite article does not count as an ending. It is an enclitic attached to the first word in a given noun phrase.

2.0. The present tense. Now we may proceed to the formation of the present tense in Romanian. Compare the conjugations of several of our sample verbs:

plec	*fug*	*tac*	*fac*	*adresez*	*citesc*	*urlu*
pleci	*fugi*	*taci*	*faci*	*adresezi*	*citeşti*	*urli*
pleacă	*fuge*	*tace*	*face*	*adresează*	*citească*	*urlă*
plecăm	*fugim*	*tăcem*	*facem*	*adresăm*	*citim*	*urlăm*
plecăţi	*fugiţi*	*tăceţi*	*faceţi*	*adresăţi*	*citiţi*	*urlaţi*
pleacă	*fug*	*tac*	*fac*	*adresează*	*citesc*	*urlă*

The endings for each person has at least a portion obviously in common.

	1.	(-u)		1.	-m
singular	2.	-i	plural	2.	-ţi
	3.	-ă/e		3.	-ă/(u)

In all persons except the first and second plural the characteristic vowel of the infinitive is missing. Because of this latter fact, we propose that we recognize two 'basic forms' of the verb: one coincides with the infinitive types given above, and the other is the infinitive minus the characteristic final vowel, i.e. /pleka-, plek-; téme-, tém-; fugi-, fug-/. And then we may show that the present tense is formed in the first, second, third singular and third plural with the short base and the first and second plural with the long base. We must shift to a special transcription at this point in order to prevent ambiguity. From now on this special transcription will be enclosed in slashes in order to keep it distinct from forms cited in Romanian.[2]

Short base:

	1	/plek +	fug +	tak +	url + u	fak +	kobor +
Sg.	2	plek + i	fug + i	tak + i	url + i	fak + i	kobor + i
	3	plek + a	fug + e	tak + e	url + a	fak + e	kobor + a

---

[2] Here is a table showing correspondences when there is a difference between our phonological transcription and Romanian orthography:

ă	/ə/	*ci, ce*	/č/	*î, â*	/ɨ/	*pi#*	/p̦/
bi#	/b̦/	*fi#*	/f̦/	*j*	/ž/	*ş*	/ș̌/
c	/k/	*gi, ge*	/ǧ/	*mi#*	/m̦/	*vi#*	/y/
						zi#	/z̦/

Pl.	3	plek + a	fug +	tak +	url + a	fak +	kobor + a/

Long base:

Pl.	1	/pleka + m	fugi + m	take + m	urla + m	fake + m	koborɨ + m
	2	pleka + ti	fugi + ti	take + ti	urla + ti	fake + ti	koborɨ + ti/

Obviously we must do several things to the basic forms above before we close in on the actual pronunciation (surface forms) of each. The student of Romanian is doubtlessly already familiar with these processes, but we shall briefly recapitulate them here adding a few nuances to make the scheme more general.

First, it is well known that although the final unstressed /-i/ is not pronounced as a full vowel in most situations, it has a definite affect on preceding consonants. The velar stops /k,g/ become affricates /č,ǧ/, /t/ becomes /ţ/, /d/ becomes /z̧/ and /s/ becomes /ş/. Most other consonants become palatalized in this environment: /p b v f z m/ → / p̉ b̉ v̉ f̧ z̉ ṁ/. The consonant cluster /sk/ has a special reflex before front vowels /şt/. Finally, /n/ disappears and /r/ tends to disappear when followed by a final unstressed /i/. Examples may be drawn from noun plurals as well as the second singular present of verbs:

barcă	boat	*bărci*	boats	*crap*	carp	*crapi*	carp
creangă	branch	*crengi*	branches	*limbă*	language	*limbi*	languages
carte	book	*cărţi*	books	*sclav*	slave	*sclavi*	slaves
brad	fir	*brazi*	firs	*zuluf*	curl	*zulufi*	curls
pas	step	*paşi*	steps	*pom*	tree	*pomi*	trees
maska	mask	*măşti*	masks				

vin	I come	*vii*	you come
tin	I hold	*ţii*	you hold
cer	I request	*cei*	you request

This will be referred to as (C ~ Ç). Note that the velars /k, g/ become /č, ǧ/ and /sk/ becomes /št/ everywhere before front vowels, regardless of position.

Second, unstressed, non-initial /a/ reduces to schwa /ə/. Note that we have *face* versus *tăcea* in the infinitive where the stress differs, but *face* and *tace* in the present tense where the stress is the same. We say 'non-initial' because of words like *aduce* and *afară* where the unstressed initial vowel is exempt from this reduction to schwa /ə/. In addition the /a/ of the first person plural of *a*-verbs reduces to schwa even when under stress: /plek-á + m plek m/. These two rules will be abbreviated by the single formula (a ~ ə).

Third, the stressed mid-vowels /é,ó/ dipthongize into /eá/ and /oá/ when followed by a schwa /ə/ in the next syllable. Additionally, the vowel /ó/ becomes /oá/ when followed by an /e/.

/plék + a → pleákə/
/pórt + a → poártə/
/profesór + a → profesoárə/

/tót + e → toáte/
/kópt + e → koápte/
/dés + a → deásə/

This rule will be noted: (e ~ eá).

Fourth, /e/ becomes /ə/ (orthographically *ă*) when preceded by a labial consonant /p b v f m/ if there is no front vowel /i,e/ in the following syllable. /ved → vəd/ while /ved + i → vez̧/ and /ved + e → vede/. This also may be illustrated in nouns by the singular and plural of such words as:

măr	apple	*mere*	apples
văr	cousin	*veri*	cousins
păr	wig	*perigor*	wigs

This process assumes that we start with /mer-, ver-, per-/. It will be signaled by the formula (e ~ ə). Remember the environment: after labial consonants and with no front vowel in the following syllable.

One more systematic simplification can be made in the formation of the present tense if we postulate an /-u/ ending for the first person singular everywhere. Note that the verbs *urla, intra* as well as *da, sta* exhibit this /u/ in pronunciation of the first singular: *(eu) urlu, intru, dau, stau.* And observe further that these same verbs show the vowel /i/ of the second singular: *(tu) urli, intri, dai, stai.* We may combine our need for stating that /-i/ is lost finally if unstressed and not following a vowel or a consonant combination containing /l,r/ with the same statement about final /u/. This one may be abbreviated (ǐ/ǔ ~ 0). This rule also applies to the language in general. First, it makes the appearance of /u/ in the forms of the noun with an article due to the fact that all masculine and neuter nouns which seem to end in a consonant, really end in /u/ in an abstract sense; and, second, it explains the appearance of /u/ in forms such as the participles *bătînd, văzînd* when enclitic objects are added, i.e. *bătîndu-i* 'hitting them', *văzîndu-l* 'seeing him'.

We need only one more principle before we can fully and clearly state the formation of the present tense in Romanian. The basic forms of the verb cited earlier fall into two distinct groups (rather than three) on the basis of the final vowel. Some end in back vowels /a, ɨ/: /pleka-, plimba-, koborɨ-, hotarɨ-/ and the others in front vowels /fugi-, citi-, take-, fáke-/. It is precisely on this basis that the endings of the third singular and third plural can be assigned. Basic forms in back vowels /a, ɨ/ take /-a/ in both the third singular and the third plural, while those in front vowels /e, i/ take /-e/ in the third singular and /-u/ in the third plural.

Here are the underlying forms for the full conjugation of six of our sample verbs:

/plek + u	plimb + u	kobor + u	ved + u	fug + u	fák + u
plek + i	plimb + i	kobor + i	ved + i	fug + i	fák + i
plek + a	plimb + a	kobor + a	ved + e	fug + e	fák + e
pleka + mu	plimba + mu	koborɨ + mu	vede + mu	fugi + mu	fáke + mu
pleka + ţi	plimba + ţi	koborɨ + ţi	vede + ţi	fugi + ţi	fáke + ţi
plek + a	plimb + a	kobor + a	ved + u	fug + u	fák + u/

After noting that the stress is placed exactly on the second vowel from the end in every form except those already possessing a stress mark, we may now apply the processes enumerated above to derive the surface forms of the conjugation of the present tense.

(a) (C ~ C) applies to:	/plék + i	giving:	/pléči
	plímb + i		plímb̧i
	kobór + i		kobór̦i
	véd + i		véz̧i
	fúg + i		fúǧi
	fák + i/		fáči/

(b) (a ~ ə) applies to: /plék + a/ giving: /plékə
kobór + a/ kobórə/

and to: /pleká + mu/ giving: /plekə́mu/

(c) (é ~ ea) applies to: /plékə giving: /pleákə
kobórə/ koboárə/

(d) (e ~ ə) applies to: /ved + u/ giving: /və́du/

(e) (i/u ~ 0) applies to: /pléku, pléči giving: /plek, pleč
plîmbu, plîmḅi plimb, plimḅ
kobóru, kobóṛi kobór, kobóṛ
v́ədu, véz̦i vəd, vez̦
fúgu, fúgi fug, fug
fáku, fáči/ fak, fač/

It is not imperative that the student of Romanian memorize every rule and apply it to every form of the verb. What must be done is to recognize the general processes that occur throughout the language, practice them through speech and writing using every new verb one encounters in sentences, referring to the rules only when difficulty arises.

EXERCISE 1. Given the following underlying forms indicate the surface form:

/adormi + ţi/
/kade + mu/
/bag + i/
/kók + e/
/kultiv + i/

/iert + a/
/ɨntind + i/
/ɨnveţ + u/
/skot + e/
/spera + mu/

EXERCISE 2. Give the basic forms for the following verbs and then write out the present tense conjugation of each:

inţelege
întîmpla
culca
compune
fura

cere
alege
afla
aşeza
omorî

2.1 Verbal infixes. Many verbs are characterized by the insertion of an infix in certain forms of the present tense. Of interest is the fact that exactly where the final vowel of the stem is truncated for all other verbs the infix is inserted, and where the truncation does not occur, neither does the infix. The three infixes are /-ez-/ for *a*-verbs, /-əsk-/ for ɨ-verbs, and /-esk-/ for *i*-verbs. Here are the underlying forms for the present tense of three of our sample verbs:

/adres(ez)a-	hotar(əsk)i-	čit(esk)i-
adresez + u	hotarəsk + u	čitesk + u
adresez + i	hotarəsk + i	čitesk + i
adresez + a	hotarəsk + e	čitesk + e
adresa + mu	hotarɨ + mu	čiti + mu
adresa + ţi	hotarɨ + ţi	čiti + ţi
adresez + a	hotarəsk + u	čitesk + u/

It will be seen that all of our rules apply also to these infixed verbs and that they are indistinguishable from their respective conjugational types in all other tenses and forms. The only peculiarity here is to be found in the third singular and third plural endings required for the ɨ-verbs. In the non-infixed forms the ɨ-verbs are like the other back vowel types, but here we see that the infixed kind take the front vowel endings in the third singular and the third plural.

2.2 We will pause now to look at those verbs which exhibit special idiosyncrasies in the present tense.

(a) Monosyllabic bases. There are six commonly used verbs with bases that consist of a single syllable: *da, sta, şti, bea, vrea, lua.*

/da + u	sta + u	şti + u	(be + u)	(vre + u)	(ie + u)
da + i	sta + i	şti + i	be + i	vre + i	ie + i
(da + a)	(sta + a)	şti + e	(be + e)	(vre + e)	(ie + e)
da + mu	sta + mu	şti + mu	be + mu	vre + mu	(lu-a + mu)
da + ţi	sta + ţi	şti + ţi	be + ţi	vre + ţi	(lu-a + ţi)
da + u	sta + u	şti + u	(be + u)	(vre + u)	(ie + u)/

The parentheses indicate the places where the expected underlying form will not lead to the correct result. /da-, sta-/ maintain the /a/ of the long base everywhere except third singular (*dă, stă*) where it would appear that the base is reduced to the consonants and a schwa added even though the syllable is stressed. /ştí-/ leads to the right results in spite of its monosyllabic status.

/be-, vre-/ seem to be examples of the addition of an /a/ to words with stressed final /é/ in the third singular (*bea, vrea*). In the first singular and third plural (*beau, vreau*), the /a/ is also added even though the phonological conditions are not present.

/ié-/ behaves just like /be-, vre-/ except for the presence of another stem, /lua-/, for the first and second plural (*luăm, luaţi*). This latter stem is the one that is used for all other tenses of the verb.

(b) Several verbs have an additional alternation (o u) when the /o/ is unstressed. These verbs must simply be memorized since a general rule cannot be made.

infinitive	1st sg.	infinitive	1st sg.	infinitive	1st sg.
zbura	*zbor*	*muia*	*moi*	*coase*	*cos (cusut pp)*
strecura	*strecor*	*scula*	*scol*	*muri*	*mor*
insura	*insor*	*turna*	*torn*	*putea*	*pot*
juca	*joc*	*purta*	*port*	*durea*	*dor*
ruga	*rog*	*înconjura*	*înconjor*	*despuia*	*despoi*
împresura	*împresor*				

(c) Two verbs, *mînca, usca,* have an extra vowel in the short base form; long base: /mɨnka-, uska-/, short base: /manɨnk-, usuk-/. The distribution of the two bases follows exactly the distribution of long and short bases of all other verbs.

(d) An apparent contradition in the assignment of endings in the third singular and first plural of *a*-verbs can be seen in the following:

Base form	1st sg.	3rd sg. and pl.	1st pl.
/taia-/	*tai*	*taie*	*tăiem*
/muia-/	*moi*	*moie*	*muiem*
/speria-/	*sperii*	*sperie*	*speriem*
/ɨnfúria-/	*înfurii*	*înfurie*	*înfuriem*

Actually, the /e/ that shows up in the third person and first plural is a natural result of /i + ə/. Feminine nouns in *-ie* are probably due to the same process. They are reflexes of an original *a* after the high front vowel; thus: /ɨndustri-a/ becomes /ɨndustriə/ and *industrie*. We shall call this Rule 6 and abbreviate it (ə ~ e). This rule has much broader application than just the present tense. In Section 3.0 on the conjunctive we shall have more to say about it.

(e) There are several verbs which have the vowel /i/ after a consonant and before the characteristic vowel of the infinitive: *înfuria, speria, împrăştia, sfişia*. In addition to the phenomenon mentioned in sub-section (d) above, in the first singular these verbs are spelled and pronounced: *înfurii, sperii, împrăştii*, etc.

(f) The verbs *suferi, oferi, acoperi, deferi, se referi* are irregular in the third singular and third plural only. Instead of the expected /e/, these verbs take /a/: *suferă, oferă, acoperă, deferă, se referă*.

(g) Two of the verbs in sub-section (f) and a fairly large group of other verbs show a retraction of stress in the present tense: where the characteristic vowel of the base form is lost, but not otherwise:

base form	1st sg.	2nd sg.	3rd sg.	3rd pl.	but:	1st pl.
/súferi-/	*súfer*	*súferi*	*súferă*	*súferă*		*suferîm*
/kúmpera-/	*cúmpăr*	*cúmperi*	*cúmpără*	*cúmpără*		*cumperăm*
/mɨ́ngɨia-/	*mîngîi*	*mîngîi*	*mîngîie*	*mîngîie*		*mîngîiém*
/ɨntúneka-/	*întúnec*	*întúneci*	*întúnecă*	*întúnecă*		*întunecăm*
/krítika-/	*crític*	*crítici*	*crítică*	*crítică*		*criticăm*
/contínua-/	*contínuu*	*contínui*	*contínuă*	*contínuă*		*continuăm*

These verbs will be marked as above in the glossary at the end. Note that none of these verbs are *e*-verbs and thus the accent will create no confusion with verbs of the *fáce* type that retain the accent throughout the present tense *and* in the infinitive.

(h) Five verbs exhibit an alternation of /e/ and /i/ in the base depending upon the stress:

base form	1st sg.	1st pl.
/veni-/	*vin*	*venîm*
/deveni-/	*devîn*	*devenîm*
/kuveni-/	*cuvîn*	*cuvenîm*
/prezenta-/	*prezînt*	*prezentăm*
/reprezenta-/	*reprezînt*	*reprezentăm*

Thus, stressed /é/ becomes /í/ before /n/ in these verbs. It will be observed that this is a fairly general phenomenon in Romanian; there are very few words where a stressed /é/ is found before /n/.

The verb *învăţa* illustrates an interesting application of our rules. It is often analyzed as an example of a three place alternation of the base vowel, i.e. *învăţ*, *înveţi* and *învaţă*. If we begin with a base form /ɨnveţa-/, all three alternates are produced by the rules we have already suggested.

	(stress)	(a ~ ə)	(é ~ eá)	(e ~ ə)	(i/u ~ ∅)
/ɨnveţ + u	ɨnvéţu	-----	-----	ɨnvə́ţu	ɨnvə́ţ/
/ɨnveţ + i	ɨnvéţi	-----	-----	-----	ɨnvéţ/
/ɨnveţ + a	ɨnvéţa	ɨnvéţ	ɨnveáţ	ɨnvəáţ	-----/
/ɨnveţa + mu	ɨnveţámu	ɨnveţə́mu	-----	ɨnvaţə́mu	ɨnvəţə́m/

Thus, all the forms are produced if we let the two like vowels collapse in the third person. Note that this is assumed already in the formation of the feminine noun with definite article: *casă* + *a* → *casa*.

(i) It is assumed that the two verbs that are truly irregular in Romanian, *fi* and *avea*, are already well known to the student using this pamphlet. It will only be observed that the irregularities for the most part are only in the base forms and not in the endings:

/sɨnt + u	am + u
est + i	a + i
est + e	(ar + e)
sɨnte + mu	ave + mu
sɨnte + ţi	ave + ţi
sɨnt + u	a + u/

2.3 The present tense may express a variety of times in relation to the present moment in real time. Among its uses are the following:

(a) action occurring during the moment of discourse:

Acum mă uit şi admir frumeseţile oraşului.
Now I am looking at and admiring the beauties of the city.

Eu lucrez acuma, n-am timp să vorbesc cu tine.
I am working now, I haven't the time to talk to you.

(b) action completed in the past in the narration of events (historical present):

Ion, după o zi de muncă grea, vine acasă.
Ion, after a heavy work day, comes home.

Napoleon pleacă cu trupele, fără să învingă inamicul.
Napoleon leaves with his troops without beating the enemy.

Atunci Mihai se aruncă asupra vrăjmaşului.
Then, Mihai attacks the enemy.

(c) implied future action:

Mîine mă duc la bibliotecă să învăţ.
Tomorrow I am going to the library to study.

Sînt înapoi aici la ora cinci.
I'll be back here at five o'clock.

(d) habitual or timeless action:

Apa îngheaţă la zero grade.
Water freezes at zero degrees.

Turistul călătoreşte prin ţară.
The tourist travels around the country.

Ea vine la mine în fiecare zi.
She comes to me every day.

Timpul fuge.
Time flies.

(e) in subordinate clauses reflecting the situation viewed from the point of view of the speaker:

Am auzit că fratele vine diseara.
We heard that Brother was (is) coming this evening.

Ţi-am spus de două ori că plec îndata.
I told you twice that I was (am) leaving immediately.

Ei o să vă asigure că sînt oamenii credincioşi.
They will assure you that they are honest people.

(f) with certain adverbs of time corresponding to the present perfect in English:

De atunci nu mai beau deloc.
Since then I haven't had a drink.

O iubesc de cincisprezece ani.
I have loved her for fifteen years.

EXERCISE 3. Give the full conjugations of the following base forms by using them in sentences.

/hotar(ăsk)ɨ-/ /umple-/ /čit(esk)i-/
/aduna-/ /ɨmpraştia-/ /kreske-/

EXERCISE 4. Write out base forms for the following verbs:

cunoaşte *adresa* *durea* *sui*
verfica *curge* *căsători* *interesa*

3.0 Conjunctive (subjunctive). The conjunctive forms are identical with the present tense except for the third person and the preposing of the invariable particle *să*. The conjunctive third singular and plural are predictable from the third singular present by a rule. If /-a/ in the present, then /-e/ in the conjunctive and *vice versa*. We shall call this the 'flip-flop rule'.

base form	3rd sg. present	3rd sg. and pl. conjunctive
/pleka-/	*pleacă*	*să plece*
/koborɨ-/	*coboară*	*să coboare*
/fugi-/	*fuge*	*să fugă*
/fáke-/	*face*	*să facă*
/take-/	*tace*	*să tacă*
/adres(ez)a-/	*adresează*	*să adreseze*
/čit(esk)i-/	*citeşte*	*să citească*

One interesting thing happens in relation to the 'flip-flop rule'. Examine the following forms.

base form	3rd sg. present	3rd sg. and pl. conjunctive
/taia-/	*taie*	*să taie*
/skríe-/	*scrie*	*să scrie*
/kontínua-/	*continuă*	*să continuă*
/ploua-/	*plouă*	*să plouă*

The verbs whose base form ends in a back vowel theoretically do take the expected /-a/ ending in the third singular present and /-e/ in the conjunctive and *vice versa* for the bases in a front vowel. What happens is that our rule 6, mentioned in connection with verbs like *taia*, *împrăştia* above, also applies here. It causes a following schwa or /e/ to agree in terms of the front-back relationship with the /i/ or /u/ preceding it. After /i/, schwa becomes /e/ and after /u/, /e/ becomes schwa. We shall abbreviate this (iə ∼ ie).

The monosyllabic verbs also illustrate interesting results of the 'flip-flop rule':

base form	present	flip	conjunctive
/da-/	*dă*	/de/	*să dea*
/sta-/	*stă*	/ste/	*să stea*
/be-/	*bea*	/be/	*să bea*
/ie-/	*ia*	/ie/	*să ia*

So the conjunctive is produced by our final stressed /é/ rule.

3.1 The verbs *fi* and *avea* (in the third singular and plural) simply use bases different from those used for the present tense:

/fi + u/	*să fiu*	/am + u/	*să am*
/fi + i/	*să fii*	/a + i/	*să ai*
/fi + e/	*să fie*	/aib + a/	*să aibă*
/fi + mu/	*să fim*	/ave + mu/	*să avem*
/fi + ţi/	*să fiţi*	/ave + ţi/	*să aveţi*
/fi + e/	*să fie*	/aib + a/	*să aibă*

3.2 The conjunctive present has the following uses:

(a) as an imperative (hortative):

Să mergem!	Let's go!
Să stai un pic.	Stay a second!
Să nu mai vorbiţi!	Say no more!

(b) as a connective corresponding for the most part to the use of the infinitive in English; observe that the tense of the verb in the main clause may vary.

Vreau să merg şi eu.	I want to go, too.
Prefer să mă duc acasă.	I prefer to go home.
N-a putut să facă asta.	He couldn't do that.
Ar fi bine să vii şi tu.	It would be nice for you to come, too.
Nu ştim ce să facem.	We don't know what to do.
Era să vă spun.	I was going to (about to) tell you.
Ea trebuie să devină cîntăreaţă.	She should (has to) become a singer.

(c) as a subjunctive:

Să traiţi!	(I wish you) Long life!
Să-ţi fie de bine!	May it go well with you! (Good luck!)

(d) as part of the colloquial future:

O să mai mîncăm la mine acasă.	We shall eat more at my place.
El o să ne telefoneze mîine.	He will call us tomorrow.

Am să plec la ţară.	I am going to leave for the country.
Ai să vezi ce om sînt!	You'll see what kind of person I am!

EXERCISE 5. Translate the following sentences:

(a) Maria wanted to come with us.
(b) John went to his office to find some papers.
(c) You should sing more often.
(d) They were about to buy a new house.
(e) Let's sit down and talk about your idea.
(f) Don't forget your keys!
(g) I will dance if you will play the piano.
(h) May our friendship never end!
(i) He doesn't know how to answer.
(j) It would be more polite to give Ioana the book.

4.0 The imperative. The imperative has virtually no form of its own. The second singular form is homophonous with the third singular present in most cases; the second plural is identical to the second plural present; and the other so-called imperatives are all forms of the present or the conjunctive. Thus, we have the following correlations:

3rd sg. present and 2nd sg. imv.	2nd pl. present and imv.
pleacă	*plecaţi*
dansează	*dansaţi*
citeşte	*citiţi*
umple	*umpleţi*
hotărăşte	*hotărîţi*
taie	*tăiaţi*

For all verbs, including those irregular ones listed below, the second plural imperative remains the same when negated, e.g. *Nu plecaţi! Nu mergeţi!* The second singular, however, takes the form of the infinitive: *Nu pleca! Nu citi! Nu tăcea!*

4.1 There are a few peculiarities in the imperative:

(a) The following *e*-verbs and *i*-verbs are exceptional in the second singular imperative in that they are not parallel to the third singular present, but to the second singular present:

adormi
apărea
auzi
cădea
dispărea
dormi
fugi
ieşi
merge
minţi
muri
pieri
plinge
rămîne
răsări
rîde
sări
şedea
sorbi
tăcea
trece
vedea

Thus, second singular imperative: *adormi! cazi! plîngi! treci! rămîi!* etc. It will be noted that all of these verbs can be used intransitively (without direct object). Some are also used transitively; when they do occur in the imperative with an object, the normal singular imperative is formed: *Trece-l la malul celălalt!* 'Pass him over to the other bank!' *Arde casa!* 'Burn the house!' *Adoarme copilul!* 'Put the child to sleep!'

(b) The verbs *fi* and *avea* also form the imperative with the second person, *fii!* from the conjunctive and *ai!* from the present. These and all other irregular second singular imperatives have regular formations when plural or when negated: *Nu fi dobitoc!* 'Don't be a fool!' *Aveţi răbdare!* 'Have patience!'

(c) There are four bases that have irregular second singular imperatives:

/fáke-/ *fă!* /zíke-/ *zi!* /veni-/ *vino!* /dúke-/ *du!*

Other verbs made from these by the addition of prefixes also follow this pattern, e.g. *reveni, aduce, deveni, satisface, preveni,* etc.

4.2 The uses of the imperative in Romanian parallel those in English. In Romanian, as in English, there are several ways to soften the abruptness of the simple imperative. Both in warnings and invitations the subjunctive (conjunctive) is substituted:

Să vii cu mine!	Come with me! (You shall come with me)
Să aveţi grijă cu pachetul!	Take it easy with the package! (You shall be careful...)
Să nu uiţi să-mi aduci cartea!	Don't forget to bring me the book! (You shouldn't forget...)

EXERCISE 6. Sit back! relax! and make up 10-20 commands for your servant or robot! Make as many as possible with pronoun objects.

5.0 The imperfect. The imperfect endings for all verbs are added to the regular base form. The endings are illustrated in the following underlying forms:

/pleka + ámu	koborɨ + ámu	čiti + ámu	fáke + ámu
pleka + ái	koborɨ + ái	čiti + ái	fáke + ái
pleka + á	koborɨ + á	čiti + á	fáke + á
pleka + ámu	koborɨ + ámu	čiti + ámu	fáke + ámu
pleka + áți	koborɨ + áți	čiti + áți	fáke + áți
pleka + áu	koborɨ + áu	čiti + áu	fáke + áu/

Note that the imperfect endings are always stressed and thus override the normal penultimate assignment of stress. The combination of vowels in each case coalesce. Back vowels /a,ɨ/ fall together with the back vowel of the ending; thus, /pleka + ámu/ → *plecam*, /koborɨ + ámu/ → *coboram*. Front vowels yield the dipthong /eá/: /čiti + ámu/ → *citeam*, /fáke + ámu/ → *făceam*. This last example illustrates the fact that the ending stress dominates.

The infixes /-ez-, -esk-, -əsk-/ play no role here, or anywhere except in the present tense.

5.1 There are very few irregularities in the formation of the imperfect.

(a) If the base form contains a sequence of vowels including /i/, then the /i/ remains in the formation of the imperfect:

/lokui + ámu/	*locuiam*	/speria + ámu/	*speriam*
/taia + ámu/	*tăiam*	/mɨ́nghia + ámu/	*mînghîiam*

(b) All but three of the monosyllabic bases are regular in the imperfect:

/be + ámu/	*beam*	/vre + ámu/	*vream*	/lua + ámu/	*luam*

/šti + ámu/ gives *ştiam* in two syllables; /da-,sta-/ have reduplicated (doubled) bases for the imperfect and other past tenses. Thus, we have *dădeam* from

/dade + ámu/ and *stăteam* from /state + ámu/.

(c) The verb *a fi* has a special base for the imperfect: /er-/. Its forms are: *eram, erai, era, eram, eraţi, erau.*

5.2 The imperfect is a past tense and has the following uses:

(a) durative or habitual action in the past:

Profesorul vorbea la nesfîrşit şi studenţii dormeau.
The professor talked on endlessly and the students slept.

Cînd eram copil, cîntam la pian.
When I was a child, I would (used to) play the piano.

Vinerea beam bere cu colegii la o cîrciumă.
On Fridays we used to drink beer at a tavern with our colleagues.

(b) as a frame for another action in the past. In this use the imperfect is often the equivalent of the English past continuous:

Urmăream un film la televizor, cind pe neaşteptate a intrat vecinul.
We were watching a film on T.V. when suddenly the neighbor entered.

In timp ce se holbau la vitrină, au pierdut autobuzul.
While they were staring at the shopwindow, they missed the bus.

Cînd a explodat bomba, ei treceau pe la noi.
When the bomb exploded, they were passing our place.

(c) an action beginning in the past and continuing up to some point of reference. An equivalent of the English past perfect:

Il aşteptam de la ora nouă.
I had been waiting for him since nine.

O cunoşteam din copilarie.
We had known her since childhood.

(d) as an equivalent of the conditional perfect:

Dacă mergeai cu noi, ştiai acum de ce ne-am întors deja.

If you had gone with us, you would know now why we came back already.

In locul lui, eu o băteam bine.

In his place I would have beaten her good.

EXERCISE 7. Translate the following sentences into Romanian:

(a) I used to work in a factory.
(b) We had known them for a year already.
(c) While mother was buying milk, we took a candy.
(d) If you had come home earlier, you could have eaten with us.
(e) Ion used to run every morning when he was growing up.

6.0 The simple past (preterite, aorist). For all verbs except *e*-verbs, the simple past is formed on the full base. Note the following underlying forms:

/pleka + i	kontinua + i	hotarɨ + i	primi + i
pleka + si	kontinua + si	hotarɨ + si	primi + si
pleka + Ø	kontinua + Ø	hotarɨ + Ø	primi + Ø
pleka + ramu	kontinua + ramu	hotarɨ + ramu	primi + ramu
pleka + raţi	kontinua + raţi	hotarɨ + raţi	primi + raţi
pleka + ra	kontinua + ra	hotarɨ + ra	primi + ra/

The rules already given will provide us with all of the proper forms (given below) except for a problem with the stress. In the simple perfect the stress, unless otherwise indicated (see *e*-verbs below), always falls on the last vowel of the base form; thus, /pleká + i, pleká + ramu/, etc. Only one problem arises: the third singular of *a*-verbs is always schwa /ə/. This obviously defies our rules and has to be considered a true exception.

plecai	*continuai*	*hotări*	*primii*
plecaşi	*continuaşi*	*hotărşi*	*primişi*
plecă	*continuă*	*hotări*	*primi*
plecarăm	*continuarăm*	*hotărîrăm*	*primirăm*
plecarăţi	*continuarăţi*	*hotărîrăţi*	*primirăţi*
plecară	*continuară*	*hotărîră*	*primiră*

6.1 The simple past of *e*-verbs is slightly complicated. First, all form the simple past from the short, truncated, base. *All* stressed *é*-bases and some base-stressed *e*-verbs add /u/, then the endings given above:

/take-	pote-	fáke-	piérde-/
/tak + ú + i	pot + ú + i	fák + u + i	piérd + ú + i
tak + ú + si	pot + ú + si	fák + ú + si	piérd + ú + si
tak + ú + Ø	pot + ú + Ø	fák + ú + Ø	piérd + ú + Ø
tak + ú + ramu	pot + ú + ramu	fák + ú + ramu	piérd + ú + ramu
tak + ú + rati	pot + ú + rati	fák + ú + rati	piérd + ú + rati
tak + ú + ra	pot + ú + ra	fák + ú + ra	piérd + ú + ra/

The rules again handle all of these forms to provide us with the following forms. Note that the second of two stresses dominates here as it did in the imperfective.

tăcui	*putui*	*făcui*	*pierdui*
tăcusi	*putusi*	*făcusi*	*pierdusi*
tăcu	*putu*	*făcu*	*pierdu*
tăcurăm	*puterăm*	*făcurăm*	*pierdurăm*
tăcuraţi	*puturăţi*	*făcurăţi*	*pierdurăţi*
tăcură	*putură*	*făcură*	*pierdură*

The *făce* type stem-stressed *e*-verbs which take /ú/ are indicated in the Appendix with a subscript, e.g. /fáke$_u$-, tíne$_u$-, náske$_u$-/. The *tăcea* type all take /ú/ and therefore no extra indication is needed. The absence of the stem accent is sufficient to differentiate them from the others.

The rest of the *e*-verbs all add /-sé-/ and the simple perfect endings to the short base:

/púne-	dúke-	plɨ́nge-	mérge-/
/pún + sé + i	dúk + sé + i	plɨ́ng + sé + i	mérg + sé + i
pún + sé + si	dúk + sé + si	plɨ́ng + sé + si	mérg + sé + si
pún + sé + Ø	dúk + sé + Ø	plɨ́ng + sé + Ø	mérg + sé + Ø
pún + sé + ramu	dúk + sé + ramu	plɨ́ng + sé + ramu	mérg + sé + ramu
pún + sé + rati	dúk + sé + rati	plɨ́ng + sé + rati	mérg + sé + rati
pún + sé + ra	dúk + sé + ra	plɨ́ng + sé + ra	merg + sé + ra/

Another rule must be added at this point to provide for the correct formation of the surface forms of these verbs. A consonant is truncated before the /-sé-/ of the perfect. Thus, /pún + sé + i/ → *pusei*, /plɨng + sé + i/ → *plînsei*. As usual with forms with more than one stress the rightmost stress dominates. However, the third singular and plural of the simple perfect both retract the stress to the root: *púse, púseră*. After the application of our rules, the above forms yield:

pusei	*dusei*	*plînsei*	*mersei*
puseşi	*duseşi*	*plînseşi*	*merseşi*
púse	*dúse*	*plî́nse*	*mérse*
puserăm	*duserăm*	*plînserăm*	*merserăm*
puserăţi	*duserăţi*	*plînserăţi*	*merserăţi*
púseră	*dúseră*	*plî́nseră*	*mérseră*

6.2 There are few peculiarities in the simple perfect aside from those of the *e*-verbs.

(a) There are three *e*-verbs that show an alternation between a velar consonant /k,g/ and /p/ in the simple perfect:

/kók + sé + i/ *copsei*
/ɨnfíg + sé + i/ *înfipsei*
/fríg + sé + i/ *fripsei*

When we look at the past participle form of these verbs, we shall find that this group actually contains ten verbs that take a special past participle ending. For the simple perfect, however, it is sufficient to note only these three and add a rule for these verbs: only /k,g/ become /p/ before a consonant (k ∼ p).

(b) Among the class of *e*-verbs taking /u/ in the formation of the simple perfect there are a few (*cădea, scădea, vedea, şedea, crede*) that change the /d/ of the base to /z/ before the endings.

/kad + ú + i/ *căzui* /ved + ú + i/ *văzui*
/créd + ú + i/ *crezui* /şed + ú + i/ *şezui*

(c) The monosyllabic verbs take the same set of endings and behave more or less in a regular fashion.

/av + ú + i/	*avui*	/dad + ú + i/	*dădui*
/vr + ú + i/	*vrui*	/stat + ú + i/	*stătui*

Note that *avea* and *vrea* follow the pattern of all other verbs of the *u*-subset and lose the characteristic vowel before the addition of the endings. *Da* and *sta* again use the reduplicated base, but also behave as do all verbs of the *u*-subset. The verb *vrea*, of course, may alternately form the simple perfect on one of its other bases /vroi-, voi-/.

The other two monosyllabic verbs, *bea* and *şti*, are also of the *u*-susbset but they differ in the fact that they keep the base vowel before the addition of the endings:

/be + ú + i/	*băui*	/sti + ú + i/	*ştiui*
/be + ú + si/	*băuşi*	/sti + ú + si/	*ştiuşi*

Note the application of the (e ~ ə) rule to *bea*.

(d) As we noted above (p. 14) this harmony of /e/ with preceding /i/ and /ə/ with /u/ is a normal phenomenon in Romanian. The verb *a fi* admits two sets of forms in the simple perfect.

/fú + i/	*fui*	/fu + sé + i/	*fusei*
/fú + si/	*fuşi*	/fu + sé + si/	*fuseşi*
/fú + Ø/	*fu*	/fu + sé + Ø/	*fúse*
/fú + ramu/	*furăm*	/fu + sé + mu/	*fusem*
/fú + rati/	*furăţi*	/fu + sé + ti/	*fuseţi*
/fú + ra/	*fură*	/fu + sé + ra/	*fúseră*

(e) The rule (ə ~ e) also applies to the third singular of *a*-verbs making verbs like *taia*, *împrăştia*, appear irregular:

/taiá + i/	*tăiai*	/ɨmprastiá + i/	*împrăştiai*
/taiá + si/	*tăiaşi*	/ɨmprastiá + si/	*împrăştiaşi*
/taiá + Ø/	*tăié*	/ɨmprastiá + Ø/	*împrăştié*

6.3 The simple perfect is rarely used in colloquial speech. Some intellectuals tend to use it on occasion to lend an air of an action completed very recently and perhaps still pertinent to the given context. This use is widespread in the area of Oltenia, but is considered dialectal. The main use of the simple perfect is in writing where it has approximately the same meaning as the compound perfect. Thus, it most often expresses an action or state in the past without reference to duration or repetition.

Ion veni ieri la mine.

Ion came to my place yesterday.

Maria se duse după apă.

Maria went for water.

Aseara cînd mă-ntorsei de la teatru, citii doua pagini, mă dezbrăcai şi mă culcai.

Yesterday when I returned from the theatre I read two pages, undressed and went to bed.

Plecarăm la piaţa şi pe drum ne întilnirăm cu Ioneştii.

We left for the square and met the Ionescus.

EXERCISE 8. Form the simple perfect of the following base forms:

/tréke$_u$-, alúneka-, şti$_u$-, dispúne-, desfáke$_u$-, plɨ́nge-, fugi-/

EXERCISE 9. Substitute the simple past for both the compound past and the historical present in the following selection adapted from N. Bălcescu:

Mihai a sosit a doua zi, luni (23 ianuarie), de cu noapte şi şi-a înfipt tabăra in locul părăsit de duşman la Scărpăteşti, iar în ziua următoare, marţi (25 ianuarie), din zi de dimineaţă a pornit de la Rusciuk, unde cum a aflat, Mustafa-Paşa nedescurajat încă de atîtea învingeri, mai strîngea oşti şi voia să mai încerce norocul. Fără a mai lăsa lui Mostafa vreme de gătire, domnul se grăbeşte, trece Dunărea pe ghiaţă pe la Marotin şi şi-a înşirat oştile mai sub porţile Rusciukului. El avea cu dînsul numai 10,000 ostaşi, în vreme ce Mustafa avea 4,000 oaste aleasă şi 10,000 turci adunătură din Bulgaria. El îşi îndeamnă oştile a se lupta vitejeşte pentru gloria lui Christos şi mîntuirea patriei şi cu frunte de leu, bărbăteşte, mai repede decît a-i gîndi, năvăleşte asupra turcilor care abia apucaseră să iasă din cetate cînd lupta s-a încăierat. Bătaia a ţinut cîtva, a fost sîngeroasă si nu a încetat pînă în noapte, cînd turcii, cu toate că erau mai numeroşi au trebuit a se pleca furiei romănilor; de la vreo 7,000 pînă la 8,000 au căzut morţi; ceilalţi şi-au căutat mîntuirea în fugă, dar ai noştri, urmărindu-i în întunecimea nopţii, fără seamă, îi ucid sau îi prinde mai pe toţi.

7.0 The pluperfect. The formation of the pluperfect parallels that of the simple perfect in every respect except stress. Here are some sample paradigms:

a-bases:

/pleká + semu/	*plecasem*	/taiá + semu/	*tăiasem*
/pleká + sesi/	*plecaseși*	/taiá + sesi	*tăiaseși*
/pleká + se0/	*plecase*	/taiá + se0/	*tăiase*
/pleká + seramu/	*plecaserăm*	/taiá + seramu/	*tăiaserăm*
/pleká + serati/	*plecaserăți*	/taiá + serati/	*tăiaserăți*
/pleká + sera/	*plecaseră*	/taiá + sera/	*tăiaseră*

i-bases:

/cití + semu/	*citesem*	/koborɨ + semu/	*coborîsem*
/cití + sesi/	*citiseși*	/koborɨ + sesi/	*coborîseși*
/cití + se0/	*citise*	/koborɨ + se0/	*coborise*
/cití + seramu/	*citiserăm*	/koborɨ + seramu/	*coborîserăm*
/cití + serati/	*citiserăți*	/koborɨ + serati/	*coborîserăți*
/cití + sera/	*citiseră*	/koborɨ + sera/	*coborîseră*

e-bases, *u*-subset:

/piérd + u + semu/	*pierdusem*	/tak + ú + semu/	*tăcusem*
/piérd + ú + sesi/	*pierduseși*	/tak + ú + sesi/	*tăcuseși*
/piérd + ú + se0/	*pierduse*	/tak + ú + se0/	*tăcuse*
/piérd + ú + seramu/	*pierduserăm*	/tak + ú + seramu/	*tăcuserăm*
/piérd + ú + serati/	*pierduserăți*	/tak + ú + serati/	*tăcuserăți*
/piérd + ú + sera/	*pierduseră*	/tak + ú + sera/	*tăcuseră*

e-bases, *s*-subset:

/dúk + sé + semu/	*dusesem*	/kók + sé + semu/	*copsesem*
/dúk + sé + sesi/	*duseseși*	/kók + sé + sesi/	*copseseși*
/dúk + sé + se0/	*dusese*	/kók + sé + se0/	*copsese*
/dúk + sé + seramu/	*duseserăm*	/kók + sé + seramu/	*copseserăm*
/dúk + sé + serati/	*duseserăți*	/kók + sé + serati/	*copseserăți*
/dúk + sé + sera/	*duseseră*	/kók + sé + sera/	*copseseră*

The stress is always on the same syllable in the pluperfect. The stressed *e*-bases give up their accent to the /sé/ that comes immediately before the endings. There is a tendency, not considered literary, to omit the syllable /-ra-/ in the plural forms. Thus, one may encounter in the first plural both *duseserăm* and *dusesem*, *plecaserăm* and *plecasem*. This could lead to an ambiguity since the simplified form of the first plural then becomes homonymous with the first singular.

7.1 The comments in 5.1 (1,2,3, and 4) about the peculiarities of the simple perfect apply equally here. The verb *fi* has only one set of forms for the pluperfect, however. It is formed very much as one would expect:

/fu + sé + semu/	*fusesem*	/fu + sé + seramu/	*fuseserăm*
/fu + sé + sesi/	*fuseseşi*	/fu + sé + serati/	*fuseserăţi*
/fu + sé + seØ/	*fusese*	/fu + sé + sera/	*fuseseră*

7.2 The pluperfect is used to express a past time anterior to another past time. This tense is much more frequently used in the spoken language than the simple perfect.

Il cunoscusem inainte de-a fi văzut prima dată pe scenă.
I met him before he appeared on the stage for the first time.

Inainte de-a ne întîlni, se plimbaseră în parc.
Before meeting us they took a walk in the park.

Cînd am sosit eu, el rezolvase deja problema.
When I arrived he had already solved the problem.

Am ajuns la timp, dar ei plecaseră mai devreme.
I arrived on time, but they had left earlier.

EXERCISE 10. Form the pluperfect from the following bases:

/aduna-, mérge-, taia-, mulţum(esk)i-, da-(dade-), prevede-, porta-/

EXERCISE 11. Change each of the following into at least three kinds of past tense sentences, making any necessary additions for clarification of sense:

Model:

Trenul soseşte astazi.	*Trenul sosi (a sosit) astăzi.* *Trenul sosise astăzi, cînd ne-am întîlnit noi.* *Trenul sosea astăzi în timp ce mi-au furat poşeta.*

(a) *Vasile îşi termină lucrarea vineri.*
(b) *Veştile sînt bune.*
(c) *La fiecare lecţie Ionel tace.*
(d) *După meci bem o bere.*
(e) *Avem noroc să fim la această facultate.*

8.0 The infinitive. The infinitive corresponds to the particle *a* plus the base form of the verb everywhere except in the case of unstressed *e*-verbs, where the /á/ is added automatically when the form stands alone (i.e. /a take/→ *tăcea*). Except in *e*-verbs marked for stem stress /fáke-, plɨnge-/ the long base (= infinitive) is always stressed on the final vowel. This exception to the normal penultimate stress can be explained historically by the existence of an older infinitive traditionally called the "long infinitive". This form, now a noun, is formed by the simple addition of /-re/ to the base of the verb:

/pleka + re/	*plecare*	/take + re/	*tăcere*
/koborɨ + re/	*coborîre*	/fáke + re/	*facere*

The "long infinitive" no longer has verbal force and is simply an action noun.

M-a întristat plecarea ta.	Your parting saddened me.
La coborîre mergem mai încet.	We go slower on the descent.

8.1 The normal infinitive is used to form several of the compound tenses as we shall see. It also is used without the particle *a* after the verb *putea* as an alternative to the conjunctive.

Acum pot să mă duc acasa. *Acum mă pot duce acasa.*	I can go home now.

This form also occurs after the verb *vrea* on occasion but this use is considered archaic and seems to be disappearing in common speech.

The full infinitive is used after prepositions in supportive clauses:

Fără a se mai uita inapoi, Ion a plecat.

Without looking back again, Ion left.

Pentru a vedea mai bine, el şi-a pus ochelarii.

In order to see better he put on his glasses.

The use of the infinitive after prepositions is treated more fully in pamphlet IV by C. Capuşan in this series.

9.0 The past participle. In Romanian, the past participle is formed very similarly to the simple perfect and the pluperfect. the endings are either /-tu/ or /-su/ in every case and they are added to the same forms the simple perfect endings were added to. The *a*-verbs and *i*-verbs use the full base:

/pleká + tu/	*plecat*	/koborɨ́ + tu/	*coborît*
/taiá + tu/	*tăiat*	/čití + tu/	*citit*

and the *e*-verbs fall into three groups as before. First, the *u*-subset:

/takɇ + ú + tu/	*tăcut*	/fâkɇ + ú + tu/	*făcut*
/piérdɇ + ú + tu/	*pierdut*	/védɇ + ú + tu/	*văzut*

Second, the *s*-subset uses the truncated base. As we mentioned in the section on the simple perfect, there are ten verbs in this group which take /-tu/ in place of /-su/ for the past participle. These verbs are: *coace, fierbe, frige, frînge, înfrînge, răsfrînge, înfige, rupe, întrerupe, sparge*. We shall call these the *t*-subset and indicate these verbs in the lexicon in the following way: /kóke$_t$-/, /fiérbe$_t$-/, /fríge$_t$-/, /frɨ́nge$_t$-/. If you will remember all *t*-verbs are subject to two special rules. First, velar consonants become /p/ and second, the /p/ is lost if preceded by a consonant.

	/kók + tu/	/fríg + tu/	/frɨ́ng + tu/	/spárg + tu/
(k ~ p)	kóp + tu	fríp + tu	frɨ́np + tu	spárp + tu
(C ~ Ø)	kopt	fript	frɨnt	spart

The rest of the *e*-verbs belong to the *s*-subset. These will not be specially marked in the lexicon. Any base-stressed *e*-verb that is not marked with /u/

or /t/ takes /-su/ in the past participle. Here are some examples:

/pún + su/	*pus*	/dúk + su/	*dus*
/mérg + su/	*mers*	/plɨ́ng + su/	*plîns*

Remember that a base final consonant is always lost before the /-s-/ of either of the perfect tenses or of the past participle. Observe that the second of the two rules for the *t*-subset is very similar but it indicates the loss only of /p/ and only when it is preceded by another consonant. Either rule would take care of a verb like *sparge* (past participle: *spart*), but we put this verb in the other group since it takes the /-tu/ ending instead of the /-su/ of this last group of *e*-verbs.

You have to memorize which subset a verb belongs to since you cannot distinguish such sets as *frînge* and *plînge* (pp *frînt* and *plîns*), *duce, coace* and *face* (pp *dus, copt* and *făcut*) by means of the bases without the subscripts: /frɨnge$_t$-, plɨ́nge-, dúke-, kóke$_t$-, fáke$_u$-/. The subscript letter is to be ignored everywhere except the perfect tenses and the past participle.

9.1 The same peculiarities we noted in the sections on the perfect are valid here except for *da* and *sta* which form straightforward past participles *dat* and *stat*. Examine the formation of the following past participles:

/be+u+tu/ - băut   /ved+ú+tu/ - văzut   /ramɨ́n+su/ - rămas
/şti+ú+tu/ - ştiut   /kad+ú+tu/ - căzut   /mɨ́n+su/ - mas
/vr+ú+tu/ - vrut   /kred+ú+tu/ - crezut
/av+ú+tu/ - avut   /şed+ú+tu/ - şezut

In addition, the verb *fi* has *fost*.

9.2 The major use of the past participle is in some of the compound tenses. You are familiar with the compound perfect (*am, ai, a, am, aţi, au* + past participle). These translate the simple past in English. Other compound forms are treated below.

EXERCISE 12. Form past participles from the following base forms:

/čit(esk)i-, presenta-, ɨmpɨ́nge-, ɨnfíge$_t$-, spárge$_t$-, ɨnkápe$_u$-/

EXERCISE 13. Change the simple past forms in the following passage to the compound perfect:

Eram sluga lor. Nu făcea să mai strice pe mine prea multe vorbe. Poate socotea că şi aşa stricase destule. Se întoarse şi-mi arătă cu mîna un şopron acoperit cu scaieţi. După aceea se pierdu în cuprinsul casei cu o singură fereastră luminată. Mă dusei unde îmi arătase să mă duc. Acolo aflai, întinse pe pămîntul bătătorit, cîteva piei uscate de oaie. Mă întinsei. Cît eram de lung mă întinsei. Oasele îmi pîrîiră. Carnea mi se dezmorţi şi începu să mă doară. Parcă mă bătuse cineva cu parul. ...„Acum am să adorm, îmi spusei, am să mă împac cu soarta şi am să adorm." Cu soarta mă împăcai, însă de adormit nu adormii. Chemai somnul. În locul lui veni încet, cu paşi uşori de motan desculţ, tătăruşul. ...Mă ridicai în capul oaselor şi mîncai. Foamea mi se ostoi. Mă lungii din nou pe pieile uscate, de oaie, şi mă gîndii la Uruma.

10.0 The present participle (gerund, verbal adverb). Two different forms of the present participle ending are encountered, *-ind* and *-înd*. The occurrence of each can be predicted in terms of the base to which it is added. Here are some samples:

cintînd
plecînd
coborînd
hotărînd

mergînd
făcind
tăcînd
pierdînd

tăind
apropiind
împrăstiind
mîngîind

fugind
citind
sfiind
pierind

If we look at the fourth column first, we see that verbs like *fugi, citi* all take the *-ind* variant. The first two columns show that *a*-verbs, *î*-verbs and *e*-verbs normally take the *-înd* variant. What would seem to be exceptions in the third column all have the /i/ in the base even though they are *a*-verbs. It is this that determines the *-ind* ending for them. Thus, the present participle is formed from the short base plus *-ind* if it is an *i*-verb or if an *a*-verb with /i/ immediately before the /a/, and in all other cases from the short base plus *-înd*.

10.1 The verbs that showed the alternation of /d/ with /z/ in the perfect forms and the past participle also have it in the present participle. There are even a few more here. All *e*-verbs whose stem terminates in /-de/ have the /d~z/ alternation in the gerund, e.g. *prinde prinzînd, rîde rîzînd,* etc. In addition there are a few with /t/ alternating with /ţ/: *simte, simţînd; scoate, scoţînd.*

The monosyllabic bases that cause problems elsewhere are mostly quite regular in the participle: *bea, bînd; avea, avînd; vrea, vrînd; sta, stînd; da, dînd.* Only *fi, fiind* and *şti, ştiind* are now polysyllables.

EXERCISE 14. Form present participles from the following bases:

/adres(ez)a-, mori-, omorɨ-, fríge-, spárge-, kučer(esk)i-, kolinda-, diferenţi(ez)a-, kápata-/

11.0. The future. Now we shall turn to the various formations of the verb that we shall call compound forms. The future tense is one of these. The future takes three different shapes in Romanian. There is a formal variant and two colloquial variants.

11.1. The formal variant uses an auxillary ultimately derived from one of the variants of the verb meaning 'want, desire' in Romanian:

voi pleca	*voi fugi*	*voi merge*	*voi tăcea*
vei pleca	*vei fugi*	*vei merge*	*vei tăcea*
va pleca	*va fugi*	*va merge*	*va tăcea*
vom pleca	*vom fugi*	*vom merge*	*vom tăcea*
veţi pleca	*veţi fugi*	*veţi merge*	*veţi tăcea*
vor pleca	*vor fugi*	*vor merge*	*vor tăcea*

The auxillary is followed by the infinitive.

The first of the two colloquial variants is stylistically neutral for the most part. In other words, while the formal variant tends to be limited to writing and to the speech of some intellectuals, the following variant is found sometimes in writing and very frequently in normal conversation.

o să plec	*o să fug*	*o să merg*	*o să tac*
o să pleci	*o să fugi*	*o să mergi*	*o să taci*
o să plece	*o să fugă*	*o să meargă*	*o să tacă*
o să plecăm	*o să fugim*	*o să mergem*	*o să tăcem*
o să plecaţi	*o să fugiţi*	*o să mergeţi*	*o să tăceţi*
o să plece	*o să fugă*	*o să meargă*	*o să tacă*

It is obviously formed with the invariable *o să* plus the conjunctive forms of the verb.

The other colloquial variant is found normally only in speech (also, of course, in literature where speech is represented). It sometimes carries with it a slight suggestion of obligation in addition to the future meaning.

am să plec	*avem să plecăm*
ai să pleci	*aveți să plecați*
are să plece	*au să plece*

This variant is simply the verb *avea* plus the conjunctive.

11.2 There is no basic difference in the English translation of the three different forms of the future given above. The third type, *am să plec,* does not so strongly indicate obligation that we would normally translate it 'I have to leave', it simply carries a nuance of such obligation and may be interpreted as such in certain contexts.

There are, as in English, other ways to imply future time. We mentioned that the present tense may do so in context of certain time adverbs (*Mîine plec.*), and we may add such expressions as the following:

Mergem să mîncăm la tine.	We are going to eat at your place.
Ma duc să mă spăl pe mîini.	I am going to wash my hands.

Note that **Merg să merg la teatru* 'I am going to go to the theatre' is impossible in Romanian.

When real conditions are stated after *dacă,* Romanian tends to use either the simple present tense or the future where we use the present in English, e.g. *Dacă mergi (vei merge) cu mine, vei vedea ceva interesant.* 'If you go with me, you will see something interesting.' When we use the 'will' form in English after 'if' it generally means 'want to, be so kind to'. 'If you will buy me a beer, I will be forever in your debt.' *Dacă vrei să-mi cumperi o bere, o să-ți fiu întotdeauna îndatorat.*

12.0. The past conjunctive (subjunctive). The past form of the conjunctive has a single invariable form for all persons:

să fi plecat   să fi fugit   să fi mers   să fi coborît   să fi tăcut

When used alone (without other clauses) the past subjunctive is translated with the English auxillaries 'should have'.

Să fi fost şi tu acolo!	You should have been there too!
Să fi văzut ce chef am tras!	You should have seen what a party we had!

12.1. Other uses of the conjunctive, present and past, are amply illustrated in pamphlets nos. VIII and IX in this series.

13.0. The conditional (optative). Another compound formation is the conditional present and perfect. The auxillary in this case is very similar to the auxillary used in the compound perfect. The student should note the differences carefully.

present		perfect	
aş pleca	*aş merge*	*aş fi plecat*	*aş fi mers*
ai pleca	*ai merge*	*ai fi plecat*	*ai fi mers*
ar pleca	*ar merge*	*ar fi plecat*	*ar fi mers*
am pleca	*am merge*	*am fi plecat*	*am fi mers*
aţi pleca	*aţi merge*	*aţi fi plecat*	*aţi fi mers*
ar pleca	*ar merge*	*ar fi plecat*	*ar fi mers*

13.1. The only absolute use of the conditional is in a form that is often called the optative. It expresses a wish or desire:

Aş merge in rai.	I would go (like to go) to heaven.
L-aş bate o dată.	I would just sock him once!
Aş fi vrut să te întîlnesc.	I would have liked to meet you.
Am fi dansat toată seara!	We would have danced all night.

The other uses of the conditional are connected with its use relative to other clauses. This subject is thoroughly treated in the two pamphlets by Jamed Algeo in this same series.

SUMMARY OF THE STRUCTURE OF THE VERB

Indicative

PRESENT

$$\text{short base} + \left\{\begin{matrix}\text{u}\\ \text{i}\\ \text{a/e}\end{matrix}\right.$$

$$\text{long base} + \left\{\begin{matrix}\text{mu}\\ \text{ti}\end{matrix}\right.$$

$$\text{short base} + \text{a/u}$$

FUTURE

$$\left.\begin{matrix}\textit{voi}\\ \textit{vei}\\ \textit{va}\\ \textit{vom}\\ \textit{veţi}\\ \textit{vor}\end{matrix}\right\} + \text{infinitive} \qquad \left.\begin{matrix}\textit{am}\\ \textit{ai}\\ \textit{are}\\ \textit{avem}\\ \textit{aveţi}\\ \textit{au}\end{matrix}\right\} \textit{să} + \text{conjunctive} \qquad \textit{o să} + \text{conjunctive}$$

SIMPLE PAST

$$\left.\begin{matrix}\text{long base}\\ \text{(a-, i-verbs)}\\ \\ \text{short base}\\ \text{(e-verbs)} + \left\{\begin{matrix}\text{ú}\\ \text{sé}\end{matrix}\right.\end{matrix}\right\} + \left\{\begin{matrix}\text{i}\\ \text{si}\\ \emptyset\\ \text{ramu}\\ \text{rati}\\ \text{ra}\end{matrix}\right.$$

PLUPERFECT

$$\left.\begin{matrix}\text{long base}\\ \text{(a-, i-verbs)}\\ \\ \text{short base}\\ \text{(e-verbs)} + \left\{\begin{matrix}\text{ú}\\ \text{sé}\end{matrix}\right.\end{matrix}\right\} + \left\{\begin{matrix}\text{semu}\\ \text{sesi}\\ \text{se}\\ \text{seramu}\\ \text{serati}\\ \text{sera}\end{matrix}\right.$$

COMPOUND PAST

$$\left.\begin{matrix}\textit{am}\\ \textit{ai}\\ \textit{a}\\ \textit{am}\\ \textit{aţi}\\ \textit{au}\end{matrix}\right\} + \text{past participle}$$

Conjunctive

PRESENT	PAST
să + present (with flip-flop rule)	*să fi* + past participle

Imperative

POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
2nd sg present	*nu* + infinitive
2nd pl present	*nu* + 2nd pl present

Conditional

PRESENT	PAST
aș *ai* *ar* *am* *ați* *ar* + infinitive	*as* *ai* *ar* *am* *ati* *ar* *fi* + past participle

Participle

PRESENT	PAST
short base + îndu indu	long base (a-, i-verbs) + *tu* short base (e-verbs) + *su* marked base (u-, t-verbs) + *tu*

SUMMARY OF RULES

I. Stress:

1. If no stress indicated, place stress on penultimate vowel.
2. If two stresses present, rightmost stress predominates. (Note exceptions in simple past and infinitive.)

II. Phonology:

1. (C ~ Ç) Consonants alternate before a final /i/ (see p. 4).
2. (a ~ ə) Non-initial unstressed /a/ reduces to schwa (neologistic forms and borrowings are exempted). Also applies to 1st pl (see p. 4).
3. (é/ó ~ eá/oá) Mid vowels dipthongize when stressed and followed in the next syllable by schwa; and in the case of /ó/ when followed by /e/. In addition, final stressed /é/ does the same (see p. 2).
4. (e ~ ə) After a labial consonant /e/ becomes schwa if no front vowel follows in the next syllable (see p. 5).
5. (iə ~ ie) /e/ and schwa alternate in relation to a preceding /i/ or /u/ (see pp. 10, 14).
6. (k ~ p) Only applies in special set of e-verbs for the past forms (see pp. 22, 28)
7. (C ~ Ø) Applies to all e-verbs in formation of the past tense, but /p/ is truncated only when another consonant immediately precedes (see pp. 21, 28).
8. (ŏ ~ u) Applies only to special set of verb stems (see p. 9).
9. (d ~ z) Applies only to verb stems in /-de/ (see pp. 22, 30).

GLOSSARY

acoperi	akóperi-	cover
admira	admira-	admire
admite	admíte-	accept
adresa	adres(ez)a-	address
aduce	adúke-	bring
aduna	aduna-	gather
afla	afla-	find, come upon
ajunge	ajúnge-	reach
ajuta	ajuta-	help
alege	alége-	choose
aluneca	alúneka-	slide
aminti	amint(esk)i-	remind
aparţine	aparţíne$_u$-	belong to
apăra	ápera-	defend
apărea	apare-	appear
aprinde	aprínde-	ignite
apropia	apropi(ez)a-	approach
apune	apúne-	set (of sun)
arăta	arata-	show
arde	árde-	burn
arunca	arunka-	throw away
ascunde	ascúnde-	hide
aşeza	aşeza-	set
aşterne	aştérne$_u$-	spread, cover
atinge	atínge-	touch
atrage	atráge-	attract
auzi	audi-	hear
avea	a-, ave$_u$-	have
bate	báte$_u$-	beat, hit
băga	baga-	place, insert
bănui	banu(esk)i-	suspect
bea	b-, be$_u$-	drink
bucura	bukura-	make joyous
cădea	kade$_u$-	fall
căpăta	kapata-	gain, receive
căsători	kasator(esk)i-	marry
căuta	káuta-	look for
ceda	čed(ez)a-	give up
cerceta	čerčet(ea)a-	research
cere	čére$_u$-	request
certa	čerta-	quarrel
cheltui	ķeltu(esk)i-	spend
chema	ķema-	spend
circula	čirkula-	move around
citi	čit(esk)i-	read
cînta	kɨnta-	sing
cîştiga	kɨştiga-	earn, win
coace	kóke-	cook
coase	kóse$_u$-	sew
coborî	koborɨ-	descend
coincide	koinčíde-	coincide
comanda	komanda-	command
construi	konstru(esk)i-	construct
continua	kontínua-	continue
conţine	konţine$_u$-	contain
convinge	konvínge-	convince
corespunde	korespúnde-	correspond
crede	kréde$_u$-	believe
creşte	kreske$_u$-	grow
critica	krítika-	criticize
cuceri	kučer(esk)i-	conquer
culca	kulka-	put to bed
culege	kulége-	collect, gather
cultiva	kultiva-	cultivate
cumpăra	kúmpera-	buy
cunoaşte	kunóske$_u$-	know
cuprinde	kuprínde-	include, cover
curăţa	kuraţa-	clean
curge	kúrge-	flow
cuveni (se)	kuveni-	be suitable
da	d-, da, dade$_u$-	give
dansa	dans(ez)a-	dance
decide	dečíde-	decide
deferi	deferi-	turn in
deosebi	deoseb(esk)i-	distinguish
depinde	depínde-	depend
deschide	deşkíde-	open
descoperi	deskóperi-	discover

descrie	deskríe-	describe
despuia	despoia-	strip
deveni	deveni-	become
diferenţia	diferenţi(ez)a-	differentiate
discuta	diskuta-	discuss
dispărea	dispare-	disappear
distinge	distínge-	distinguish
dori	dor(esk)i-	desire
dormi	dormi-	sleep
duce	dúke-	lead
durea	dore-	hurt, pain
elimina	elímina-	eliminate
exclude	esklúde-	exclude
exercita	egzércita-	exist
exista	egzista-	exist
explica	eksplika-	explain
exploda	eksplod(ez)a-	explode
face	fáke$_u$-	make, do
fi	fi-, sɨnt-, sɨnte-, est-	be
fierbe	fiérbe$_t$-	boil
folosi	folos(esk)i-	use
forma	form(ez)a-	form
frige	fríge$_t$-	fry, broil
frînge	frɨ́nge$_t$-	break
fugi	fugi-	run
fura	fura-	steal
găsi	gas(esk)i-	find
gîndi	gɨnd(esk)i-	think
glumi	glum(esk)i-	joke
grăbi	grab(esk)i-	hurry
gusta	gusta-	taste
holba	holb(ez)a-	gape
hotărî	hotar(əsk)ɨ-	decide
ierta	ierta-	forgive
ieşi	iesi-	exit
include	inklúde-	include
insista	insista-	persist
interesa	interes(ez)a-	interest
interveni	interveni-	intervene
interzice	interzíke-	forbid

intra	intra-	enter
introduce	introdúke-	introduce, put in
invita	invita-	invite
iubi	iub(esk)i-	love
ivi (se)	iv(esk)i-	appear
îmbraca	ɨmbraka-	dress
împinge	ɨmpínge-	push
împrăştia	ɨmpráştia-	spread
împresura	ɨmpresora-	surround
împrumuta	ɨmprumuta-	borrow
încăleca	ɨnkáleka-	mount
încăpea	ɨnkape-	hold, enclose
încerca	ɨnčerka-	try
încheia	ɨnķeia-	end
închide	ɨnķíde-	close
înconjura	ɨnkonjora-	go around
înfige	ɨnfíge$_t$-	pierce
înfrînge	ɨnfrɨ́nge$_t$-	defeat
înfuria	ɨnfúria-	infuriate
îngheţa	ɨngeţa-	freeze
înscrie	ɨnskríe-	register
însura	ɨnsora-	marry (of male)
întinde	ɨntínde-	stretch out
întîlni	ɨntɨln(esk)i-	meet
întîmpina	ɨntɨ́mpina-	greet
întîmpla	ɨntɨmpla-	happen
întîrzia	ɨntɨ́rzia-	be late
întoarce	ɨntórke-	return
întreba	ɨntreba-	ask
întrerupe	ɨntrerúpe$_t$-	interrupt
întrista	ɨntrist(ez)a-	sadden
întelege	ɨnţelége-	understand
învăţa	ɨnveţa-	learn, teach
învinge	ɨnvínge-	conquer
juca	joka-	play
judeca	júdeka-	judge
justifica	justífika-	justify
lămuri	lamur(esk)i-	inform, make clear
lega	lega-	tie
linişti	linişt(esk)i-	calm, quiet
lipsi	lips(esk)i-	be missing
locui	loku(esk)i-	inhabit, live
lovi	lov(esk)i-	strike

lua	ie-, lua-	take
lucra	lukr(ez)a-	work
lupta	lupta-	fight, war
măsura	masora-	measure
merge	mérge-	go
mirosi	miros(esk)i-	smell
mişca	mişka-	move
mîna	mɨna-, máne-	postpone
mînca	mɨn(ɨ)ka-	eat
mîngîia	mɨ́ngɨia-	caress
modifica	modífika-	modify
muia	moia-	wet
mulţumi	mulţum(esk)i-	thank
muri	mori-	die
naşte	náske-	bear (a child)
năvăli	naval(esk)i-	charge, attack
număra	númera-	count
obţine	obţine$_{u}$-	obtain
ocoli	okol(esk)i-	detour
ocupa	okupa-	occupy
oferi	oferi-	offer
omorî	omorɨ-	kill
opri	opr(esk)i-	stop
opune	opúne-	oppose
părea	pare-	seem
pătrunde	patrúnde-	penetrate
permite	permíte-	permit
petrece	petréke$_{u}$-	spend (time)
pierde	piérde$_{u}$-	lose
pieri	pieri-	perish
pipăi	pípai-	pet
plăti	plat(esk)i-	pay
pleca	pleka-	leave
plimba	plimba-	stroll
plînge	plɨ́nge-	cry
ploua	ploua-	rain
porni	porn(esk)i-	start
prevedea	prevede-	foresee
preveni	preveni-	prevent
prezenta	prezenta-	present
pricepe	pricépe$_{u}$-	perceive
primi	prim(esk)i-	receive
privi	priv(esk)i-	look at
pune	púne-	put
purta	porta-	carry
putea	pote-	be able
răbda	rabda-	be patient
rămîne	ramɨne-, ramáne-	remain
răni	ran(esk)i-	wound
răsări	rasari-	rise
răsfrînge	rasfrɨnge$_{t}$-	reflect
răspunde	raspúnde-	respond
reprezenta	reprezenta-	resresent
repezi	repedi-	rash
retrage	retráge-	retreat
rezolva	rezolva-	solve
ridica	ridika-	raise, pick up
rîde	rɨ́de-	laugh
ruga	roga-	pray, ask for
rupe	rúpe$_{t}$-	tear, rip
sări	sari-	jump
schimba	sķimba-	change
scoate	skóte-	take out, off
scrie	skríe-	write
scula	skola-	raise, get up
semăna	sémana-	resemble; seed
sfîrşi	sfɨrs(esk)i-	end
sfîşia	sfɨşia-	tear up, slander
simţi	simti-	feel
sorbi	sorbi-	slurp
sosi	sos(esk)i-	arrive
sparge	spárge$_{t}$-	break
spăla	spela-	wash
spera	spera-	hope
speria	spéria-	frighten
spune	spúne-	say
sta	st-, sta-, state$_{u}$-	stand, stay
stinge	stínge-	extinguish
strecura	strekora-	filter
strînge	strɨnge-	squeeze
suferi	súferi-	suffer
sui	sui-	climb
supăra	súpera-	anger

şedea	şede-	sit
şterge	ştérge-	erase, wipe
şti	ştie$_u$-	know
tăcea	take-	be silent
tăia	taia-	cut
teme (se)	téme$_u$-	fear
termina	términa-	terminate
tinde	tínde-	tend
traduce	tradúke-	translate
trage	tráge-	pull
trebui	trébui-	need, have to
trece	tréke$_u$-	pass
trimite	trimíte-	spend
turna	torna-	pour
tine	ţíne$_u$-	hold, keep
ucide	učíde-	murder
uita	uita-	forget
umbla	umbla-	walk
umple	úmple$_u$-	fill
urca	urka-	climb
urî	ur(əsk)ɨ-	hate
urla	urla-	scream
urma	urm(ez)a-	follow
urmări	urmar(esk)i-	follow, shadow
usca	us(u)ka-	dry
vedea	vede-	see
veghea	veġ(ez)a-	keep vigil
veni	veni-	come
verifica	verífika-	verify
vinde	vínde$_u$-	sell
vizita	vizit(ez)a-	visit
voi	vo(esk)i-	want
vorbi	vorb(esk)i-	talk
vrea	vr-, vre$_u$-	want
vroi	vroi-	want
zăcea, zace	zake- (záke-)	lie ill
zbura	zbora-	fly
zice	zíke-	say
zîmbi	zɨmb(esk)i-	smile

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Augerot, James and Florin Popescu. *Modern Romanian.* Seattle, 1971.

Cazacu, Boris, *et al.* *A Course in Contemporary Romanian.* Bucharest, 1969.

Guţu-Romalo, Valeria. *Morfologie structurală a limbii române.* Bucharest, 1968.

Juilland, Alphonse and P. M. H. Edwards. *The Rumanian Verb System.* The Hague, 1971.

Lombard, Alf. *La verbe roumaine.* Lund, 1964.

ROMANIAN GRAMMAR PAMPHLETS

James E. Augerot, Editor

IV. PREPOSITIONS

by

Cornel Capusan

This work was developed pursuant to a contract between
the U.S. Office of Education and the Center for Applied Linguistics

(OEC-0-72-1588)

1973

PREFACE

These Romanian grammar pamphlets grew out of meetings held at the American Council of Learned Societies for the development of materials for Eastern European languages and subsequent funding by the U.S. Office of Education through the Center for Applied Linguistics. Priorities for language materials were established by polling most of those concerned with the teaching of Romanian in the United States. It was decided that, among other things, a series of grammar pamphlets, each treating specific problems and providing exercises, was the best way of attacking the shortage of materials for students beyond the first-year manuals. The pamphlets were thought useful because of the flexibility they would offer to a field in which teaching philosophies differed greatly from institution to institution and student needs beyond the first year course are also very disparate. The teacher of Romanian will have the opportunity to tailor his course to his students' needs using any number of the pamphlets in whatever order he determines to be most fruitful. Each pamphlet is basically independent of all the others, although there is some cross reference and the series has been arranged in an order suggesting the best use, all other things being equal. I would suggest that the teacher might find the first 3 pamphlets useful even before the first year of Romanian is completed. The remainder could very well serve as companion units to a second-year course that concentrates on readings and a refinement of the students' appreciation of finer points of Romanian grammar and expression. Eventually we hope to see more materials for advanced courses including a social science reader, more grammar pamphlets and a reference grammar, as well as a good dictionary.

Each pamphlet contains exercises appropriate to the materials and a brief bibliography for the enterprising student who wants to begin to make a serious study of the language.

The Editor takes full responsibility for the arrangement and the typography of the series. The particular theoretical approach and content of

each pamphlet varies considerably, however, and the individual authors remain responsible in these areas. We felt that this was not in any way detrimental in relation to the goals of the series. We included two of the pamphlets in the original Romanian. We realize that these will be somewhat difficult for the less advanced student, but he must begin to make the transition some time and these will help him to that end.

I thank Ms. Dorothy Rapp of the Center for Applied Linguistics for her always pleasant logistical assistance and to Ms. Kathleen Murphy, the project Secretary and in fact, although not in title, Assistant Editor, I owe a great deal. Professor Mircea Borcilă of the University of Cluj has been a constant and delightful consultant for things Romanian.

The titles and authors of the ten pamphlets in the recommended order are as follows:

I. SOME ROMANIAN DETERMINERS by Frederick B. Agard
II. ROMANIAN INTONATION AND STRESS by Robert L. Rankin
III. THE CONJUGATION OF THE ROMANIAN VERB by James E. Augerot
IV. PREPOSITIONS by Cornel Capuşan
V. POSSESSIVE AND DATIVE CONSTRUCTIONS IN ROMANIAN by Frederick B. Agard
VI. PRONUME ŞI FORME ENCLITICE by Anca Belcniţă Hartular
VII. PATTERNS OF SYNTAX IN ROMANIAN by Robert L. Rankin
VIII. NOUN CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN by James Algeo
IX. ADVERB CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN by James Algeo
X. STRUCTURA ETIMOLOGICĂ A VOCABULARULUI ROMÂNESC by Theodor Hristea

James E. Augerot
Editor
University of Washington
May 15, 1973

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface i

Table of Contents iii

1.0 Introduction 1

2.0 Prepositions and nouns 2

3.0 Prepositions and verbs 4

4.0 Prepositions and adverbs 5

Exercises 1-2 7

5.0 The prepositions and their uses 7

  5.1 *a* 7
  5.2 *asupra* 8
  5.3 *cu* 8
  5.4 *de* 9
  5.5 *din* 11
  5.6 *din* and *de la* 12
  5.7 *despre* 12
  5.8 *după* 13
  5.9 *fără* 13
  5.10 *în* 13
  5.11 *între, dintre, printre* .. 14
  5.12 *întru, dintru* 15
  5.13 *la* 15
  5.14 *lîngă* 16
  5.15 *pe* 16
  5.16 *peste* 17
  5.17 *pentru* 18
  5.18 *pînă* 18
  5.19 *spre (în-, din-) catre* .. 18
  5.20 *sub* 19

Exercises 3-7 20

6.0 Adverbs, nouns, verbs as prepositions 21

7.0 Phrasal prepositions 22

8.0 Prepositoins which function adverbially 23

9.0 Repetition of the preposition 23

Appendix: Common verb plus preposition complexes 24

Bibliography 27

PREPOSITIONS

1.0 As in English, prepositions in Romanian express relationships between words in a sentence. Prepositions may precede a noun, a pronoun, an adjective, a numeral, a verb, an adverb or a conjunction, as well as another preposition:

Noun:	*Vine de la gară.*	He comes from the railway station.
Pronoun:	*Lucrează cu mine.*	He works with me.
Adjective:	*Era aşa de frumos!*	He was so beautiful!
Numeral:	*Numărul lor e de 30.*	Their number reaches 30.
Verb:	*Greu de priceput.*	Difficult to understand.
Adverb:	*E pe aproape.*	He is around.
Conjunction:	*A venit pentru ca să-l vadă.*	He came to see him.
Preposition:	*Pe la ora 4.*	Around 4 o'clock.

Prepositions, of course, may not be used independently. In conjunction with other words, they generally convey a meaning of their own and simultaneously provide cues to the syntactical function of other words in the sentence. Romanian prepositions express many relationships: relations of time, place, cause, purpose, possession and dependence are among the most important of these. One essential difference between Romanian and English prepositions is that Romanian prepositions which express position can express movement as well, whereas English prepositions generally do not.

1.1 Prepositions fall into several categories according to their form. They may be simple, compound or other parts of speech used as prepositions.

1.2 Simple prepositions.

a	to	*între, dintre, printre*	among
asupra	about, on, above	*la*	at, to
cu	with	*lîngă*	next to
de	of	*pe*	on
din, dintru	from	*peste*	above
despre	about	*pentru*	for
după	after	*pînă*	till, until
fără	without	*spre, către*	toward
în, întru	in	*sub*	under

1.3 Compound prepositions.

înspre	toward	*fără de*	without
dinspre	from	*pe la*	around
de la	from	*de pe lîngă*	next to, affiliated to
de către	by		

1.31 Phrasal prepositions (with the help of nouns).

în faţa	in front of
în spatele	behind
din pricina	because
din partea	from, on behalf of

1.32 Phrasal prepositions (with the help of adverbs).

împreună cu	together with
în afara	besides
pe dinaintea	in front of

1.4 Nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs used as prepositions.

graţie	thanks to
cu tot	with all
mulţumită	thanks to
înaintea	in front of
deasupra	above

2.0 Prepositions and nouns.

2.1 The case of nouns after prepositions. The great majority of Romanian prepositions, including some of the phrasal prepositions, require the accusative case:

Trecem pe pod.	We cross the bridge.
Soseşte o dată cu mine.	He arrives at the same time as I (literally 'with me').

Two simple prepositions (*asupra, contra*) and all phrasal prepositions formed with adverbs, require the genitive of the noun:

Privire asupra siţuatiei politice.	A look at the political situation.
In spatele casei.	Behind the house.
Inapoia uşii.	Behind the door.

The possessive adjective, however, is used with these prepositions in place of the accusative pronoun: *A luptat contra mea.* 'He fought against me.' *Asupra noastră.* 'Above us.' Note that all others take the accusative form of the pronoun: *cu mine, la voi, în ea.*

In Romanian some of the functions of English prepositions are assumed by other means of expression. The most important is the case system, namely the genitive instead of *de*, and the dative instead of *la* (see 5.3a and 5.12f).

2.2 The use of the article with nouns preceded by a preposition. The Romanian language differs considerably from English in the way it uses the definite article for unmodified nouns preceded by a preposition. In the sentence *Aleargă pe pod* the noun, although without an article, indicates a definite bridge and the translation is 'He runs on ***the*** bridge.' The indefinite state is indicated by the use of the indefinite article: *Aleargă pe un pod.* 'He runs on a bridge.'

In case the noun preceded by the preposition has the definite article, an attribute of that noun must necessarily follow: *Am luat ţigările din cutia albastră.* Without the modifier the article is absent even if semantically implied: *Am luat ţigările din cutie.* Nouns preceded by prepositions, however, can take the article in certain cases:

a. Nouns for relatives, only when they refer to the relatives of the one speaking. *L-am văzut pe bunicul* (in this case *meu* is implied) as opposed to *L-am văzut pe bunic* (someone else's grandfather).

b. Certain nouns that express unique social status like: *împărat* 'emperor', *crai, rege* 'king', *popă* 'priest', *zmeu* 'dragon', *drac* 'devil'. *Am văzut pe dracul.* 'I saw the devil.'

c. The preposition *cu*:

Ion şi cu bătrînul or *Ion cu bătrînul.*	John and the old man.
Se scoală o dată cu zorile.	He wakes up early in the morning.
Omul vine cu femeia.	The man comes with the woman.
Taie cu cuţitul.	He cuts with the knife.
Erau cu sutele.	They were by the hundreds.

The attribute in this case can use the noun with or without the article depending on the context: *Femeia cu poşeta.* '...a purse.' *Femeia cu poşeta.* '...the purse.'

While it is true that the combination of preposition plus noun with definite article requires an attribute, it is not true the other way around: the existence of an attribute after such a noun does not imply the necessary existence of the definite article; as a general rule it can be said that if a particular noun appears for the first time in the discourse, it should have the indefinite article, and after that, when it appears for the second or third time, the definite article: *O cioară stă pe o casă. Pe casa aceea mai erau şi alte păsări.* 'A crow is standing on a house. On that house other birds were also standing.'

3.0 Prepositions and verbs. There are only two instances in which Romanian uses prepositions before verbs:

a. As a sign of the infinitive, there is always the preposition *a*: *A fi sau a nu fi.* 'To be or not to be.' The infinitive is also used in combination with several prepositions:

pentru a, spre a reuşi	in order to succeed
de a citi	to read
prin a merge	by going (followed by the present participle)

Examples:

Pentru a putea lucra, si-a luat cărţi.	In order to be able to work, he bought books.
Abilitatea de a munci.	The ability to work.
A început prin a se spăla.	He began by washing himself.

b. The "supine", used with *de, la, pentru* plus the past participle:

apă de băut	drinking water
uşor la purtat	easy to wear
bun pentru curăţat	good (in good enough contition) for cleaning

3.1 There are verbs which require certain prepositions. Here are a few examples:

a bănui de	*L-am bănuit de furt.*	I suspected him of robbery
a cînta la, din	*A cîntat la vioară. A cîntat din vioară.*	He played the violin. He played (folk tunes on) the violin.
a contribui cu, la	*Contribui cu bani la afacere.*	I contribute money to this business
a goli de	*Am golit casa de mobilă.*	We emptied the house of furniture.
a rezista la	*Rezistă la frig.*	It resists the cold.
a trece de	*Ai trecut de Oradea.*	You passes Oradea.

In the Appendix there is a list of such verbs with examples. We have omitted verbs that have parallel restrictions in English.

4.0 Prepositions and adverbs. Several of the most common prepositions are frequently found before adverbs: *de, în, pe, pînă, cu, la.* The combination of preposition and adverb is used to express the direction of movement or movement as opposed to position. Sometimes the preposition changes the meaning of the adverb even more.

Such preposition-adverb combinations are written in two ways, either as one word (*întotdeauna*) or as two (*în curînd,* preferred equivalent of *curînd* 'soon'). We will discuss only the second category, considering the first one to contain simple adverbs.

4.1 Combinations of *de*. When combined with adverbs of place, *de* indicates the movement from the point expressed by the adverb: *de aici* 'from here', *de acolo* 'from there', *de departe* 'from afar'. There is an obvious difference in meaning between *Merg acolo* and *Merg de acolo (la scoală)* translated respectively as 'I go there' and 'I go from there (to school)'. *De* plus an adverb may express position when it introduces an attribute: *Casă de acolo e verde.* 'The house over there is green.' (see 5.4 - Compound prepositions.)

De can also be used to express the time from which the action is dated: *de atunci* 'since then', *de ieri* 'since yesterday', *de acum* 'from now on', *de azi* 'from today'. Note that both English 'since' and 'now' have to be translated by *de* in this sense. Note also that to all these expressions that refer to a moment in the present or future, another adverb (*încolo*) may be added. This emphasizes the future continuation of the action. *De acum încolo mă las de fumat.* 'From now on I'll quit smoking.' *De mîine încolo încep să învăţ.* 'From tomorrow I'll start studying.'

De can also strengthen the modal character of the adverb: *de abia* 'just', *de altfel, de altminteri* 'otherwise.' *De altminteri e sănătos.* 'Otherwise he is healthy.' *De abia a plecat.* 'He had just left.'

În is used with adverbs in order to indicate the direction of a movement (*în sus, în jos*). A sentence like *Merg jos* 'I go down' indicates the final point to be reached, while *Merg în jos* 'I go downward' indicates only the direction followed.

4.3 *Pe* before adverbs expresses:

a. with verbs of movement, the space in which the movement takes place.

b. with verbs of position, the extension in space of the things mentioned in the sentence.

Avionul a trecut pe deasupra noastră.	The plane passed above us.
Canalele se află pe dedesubtul străzilor principale.	The sewers are under the main streets.

Other combinations: *pe dinainte* 'in front of', *pe dinapoi* 'behind'. All these combinations are with adverbs preceded by the preposition *de* already fused with the adverb (*de* + *înapoi* = *dinapoi*).

Other adverbs of place preceded by *pe* indicate an approximation: *pe aproape* 'somewhere around', *pe aici* 'somewhere here', *pe acolo* 'somewhere there', *pe undeva* 'somewhere' (equivalent of *undeva*). *E pe aici.* 'He is around.'

Pe emphasizes the adverbial nature of the following: *pe furiş* 'furtively', *pe-ndelete* 'leisurely', *pe deplin* 'fully', *pe scurt* 'in short', *pe cînd* 'while', *pe atunci* 'in that time'.

Other phrases formed with prepositions and adverbs: *cu bine* 'well' *cu dinadinsul* 'on purpose', *la dreapta* 'to the right', *la stînga* 'to the left' (notice that in the latter two the word *parte* is implied by the article), *dintr-acolo* 'from there', *intr-acolo* 'in that direction'.

EXERCISE 1. Put the nouns and the pronouns in the form required by the prepositions or the prepositional phrases:

Acum cîteva zile am făcut o excursie frumoasă pe (mal rîului). De-a lungul (drum) cresc copaci şi printre (ramuri) se vede soarele strălucind deasupra (munţi). Ne-am oprit cu (maşină) sub (un stejar) bătrîn; lîngă (eu) erau multe flori. Am intrat în (apă) şi am început să înot împotriva (curent). Seara am luat-o către (casă). Inapoia (casă noastră) e un restaurant. Graţie (prieten meu) care m-a invitat la (restaurant) şi mai apoi la (el) am petrecut o seară dintre (cele mai plăcute).

EXERCISE 2. Decide whether the nouns in parentheses need articles or not:

Ieri am fost la (cinematograf). Un prieten mi-a vorbit despre (film) american care rulează la (cinematograf) din (cartier) nostru. N-am dus la (casă) ca să cumpăr bilet pentru (matineu), dar nu aveau decît pentru (oră) nouă seara. Am găsit un loc în (rînd) trei, lîngă uşă. A fost un film amuzant cu (bătăi) spectaculoase şi cu (împuşcături). Eroul trăgea cu (pistol) cînd trebuia şi cînd nu trebuia. A fost un film de (senzaţie), cu (cai) frumoşi şi fără (dragoste).

5.0 The prepositions and their uses.

5.1 *A*. Used only in very restricted circumstances:

a. as a sign of the infinitive: *A fi sau a nu fi.* 'to be or not to be.'

b. to express resemblance or smell: *Seamănă a oraş.* 'It resembles a city.' *Miroase a vin.* 'It smells of wine.'

c. to indicate distribution of the price or measure of each unit among several units of the same type:

Zece cămăşi a cincizeci de lei bucata.	Ten shirts fifty lei apiece.
Trei porci a 100 de kg. fiecare.	Three pigs 100 kg. each.

Although parallel to a preposition this latter use really derives from the possessive article.

Compound prepositions. The *a* of the infinitive can be preceded by other simple or compound prepositions (*de, pentru, spre, de la, pînă la*) as well as some phrasal prepositions (*în loc de, înainte de*).

Pentru a putea pleca.	In order to be able to go.
De la a vorbi pînă la a munci e o distanţă.	There is a distance between talking and working.
Inainte de a începe.	Before starting.

De a is used after nouns and in translated by the infinitive in English: *Capacitatea de a lucra.* 'The ability to work.'

5.2 *Asupra* 'on'. This preposition has lost its original meaning of 'above' in contemporary Romanian, and has been replaced by its compound *deasupra* (*de* + *asupra*). Nowadays it expresses the state of being above only in an abstract way, indicating the influence or impact on something: *Are mare influenţă asupra mea.* 'He has great influence on me.'

The uses of *asupra* are restricted mostly to a position after certain verbs:

a avea influenţă asupra	to have influence on
a se pronunţa asupra	to express his opinion on
a-si exercita puterea asupra	to exert his power on
a aplana (o primejdie) asupra	a danger is imminent for

For other equivalents of English 'on' see 5.14.

5.3 *Cu* 'with'. As in English this preposition expresses:

a. association: *Locuieşte cu fratele lui.* 'He lives with his brother.'

b. an instrument: *Taie cu cuţitul.* 'He cuts with the knife.

c. mode: *Cu uşurinţa.* 'With ease.'

d. a characteristic feature: *O pisică cu coadă lungă.* 'A cat with a long tail.'

Romanian sometimes uses *cu* before a noun, creating the equivalent of an adjectival attribute: *om cu noroc* is the equivalent of *om norocos* 'lucky man.'

e. a relation: *Se mîndrea cu el.* 'He was proud of him.'

Association implies cases in which English uses the conjunction 'and':

mămăligă cu lapte 'cornmush and milk', *cafea cu lapte* 'coffee and milk'. In Romanian there are even instances when *cu* and *şi* are interchangeable when two or more elements of a multiple subject are implied: *Ion cu/şi Petru au plecat la plimbare.* 'Ion and Petru went for a walk.' Even more frequent is the use of both *cu* and *şi* as in this example: *Ion şi cu Petru au plecat la plimbare.*

Unlike English, *cu* can also express:

f. content: *un butoi cu vin* 'a barrel of wine'. There is a difference to be taken into account between the use of *cu* and *de*. In the case of *butoi cu vin*, the barrel of wine is full of wine; in the case of *butoi de vin*, the content is not important. What is important is the use.

g. duration: *Nu merge acasă cu săptămînile.* 'He doesn't go home for weeks.' *Nu-l vede cu anii.* 'He hasn't seen him for years.'

h. succession: *an cu an* 'year after year', *zi cu zi* 'day after day'.

5.4 *De* 'of'. Like the English 'of', *de* is used to express possession, origin, dependence, or quality, but note that *de* corresponds only partially to the English 'of'. For example, constructions with *de* have an indefinite character, while those with the genitive are markedly definite. The contrast between these two is evident in the two expressions *apă de mare* 'seawater and *apa mării* 'the water of the sea'. Although very similar in meaning, they are different and as a matter of fact, they are used in different contexts. The first one belongs to a category, while the second one belongs to a definite object. It is of the greatest importance to differentiate between these two meanings which can vary considerably, as in these two examples: *cartea profesorului* 'the book of the professor' and *cartea de profesor* 'a professorial book', a book having certain characteristics that distinguish a category, that of professors, by content, style, and so on. In other cases there is only one of the two expressions, as in *Război de independenţă* 'War of Independence' where it would be absurd to say *războiul independenţei* 'the war of the independence (meaning fought by the independence). As can be seen in these examples, the correspondence is not perfect, but *de* appears more often to supply a link between two nouns which in English may be simply juxtaposed forming a compound noun without any need of a preposition. Besides this 'categorical' meaning, *de* can also be used to indicate:

a. quantity: *un kilogram de cafea* 'one kilogram of coffee'. But in Romanian even cardinal numerals require the use of *de* with the exception of those from 1 to 19 and all their compounds like *1919 oameni* '1919 men', but *1920 de oameni* '1920 men'.

b. material: *inel du aur* 'gold ring' i.e. ring made of gold.

c. time: *sărbătoarea de ieri* 'yesterday's feast'.

d. place: *El vine de acolo.* 'He comes from there.' Here *de* is used only with adverbs. For other instances of this usage, see 5.51

e. agent or author: *Sînt făcute de mine.* 'They are made by me.' *Poezii de Eminescu* 'poems by Eminescu'.

f. attaching or detaching: *S-a lipit de pămînt.* 'He stuck to the ground.' *S-a scuturat de zăpadă.* 'He shook the snow off.'

g. distribution of a known number of units to every beneficiary: *Cinci portocale de fiecare.* 'Five oranges for each.' In this case, *de* can be replaced by *pentru* (see 5.16e).

h. occasion: *De sărbători a venit acasă.* 'He came home for the holidays.'

i. after the comparative of inferiority and superiority when a numeral follows: *A lucrat mai mult de zece zile.* 'He worked more than ten days.'

j. beginning of a state or action: *De tineri erau înţelepţi.* 'They were wise ever since they were young.

k. mode: *Se înţeleg de minune.* 'They understand each other perfectly.'

l. purpose: *Fructul e de mîncare.* 'The fruit is for eating.'

m. idioms: *greu de cap* 'slow in thinking'; *slab de înger* 'frightened'; *surd de ureche* 'deaf in one ear'; *sciop de un picior* 'has a limp'.

Compound Prepositions: *de la* 'from' (see 5.5), *de după*, 'after', *de lîngă* 'next to', *de pe lîngă* 'next to' or 'affiliated with', *de pe* 'on', *de peste* 'across', *de pînă* 'until' (used only with certain adverbs), *de sub* 'under'. All these compound prepositions express:

n. the movement from an initial point in space (an exception is *de pînă).* *Pleacă de sub pod.* 'He goes away from under the bridge.'

o. the place of the subject (not object): *L-am văzut de sub pod.* 'I saw him from under the bridge.' as opposed to *L-am văzut sub pod.* 'I saw him under the bridge.'

p. placement in space or time. In this case they precede an attribute: *Casa de lîngă spital.* 'The house next to the hospital.' To use these prepositions before an attribute without *de* is a mistake. One can say: *Casa era lîngă spital.* 'The house was near the hospital.' but never *Casa lîngă spital.* In this case, in translating, the English compound prepositions are to be avoided. The compound preposition *de prin* 'somewhere from' has the same uses, indicating a vagueness of location in time or space: *E de prin Bihor.* 'He is from Bihor, or somewhere like that.'

5.5 *Din* 'from, out of'. One of the most important uses of *din* is to indicate material. In this respect, it replaces *de* more and more: *masă de lemn* and *masă din lemn* are almost equivalents, but *din* insists on the material or matter things are made from. In contrast to *de, din* has a definite value; that means the noun following this preposition may be modified and thus, will take the definite article, while *de* does not allow this: *masă din lemnul acela* 'a table from that wood'. Once an attribute of *din lemn* is added, the noun must take the article. Note that if another attribute indicating the material follows, the use of the article is not mandatory: *masă din lemn de brad* 'a table from firwood.'

In other instances, too, *din* corresponds to the English 'of' when indicating:

a. transformation: *Coniacul se face din vin.* 'Cognac is made of wine.'

b. partitive: *unul din cei mulţi* 'one of many' (equivalent in this case to *dintre* - see 5.10b).

c. subtraction: *trei din cinci* 'three from five'.

d. *Din* may correspond to the English 'by' in expression of the mode: *Il cunoaşte din vedere.* 'He knows him by sight.' or to 'for, out of' when expressing the cause or purpose: *S-a căsătorit din interes.* 'He married out of (self)-interest.'

5.6 Some of the uses of *din* are shared with the compound *de la* (used frequently in colloquial speech). Basically the difference between *din* and *de la* is that *din* indicates the detachment from a space or region, while *de la* indicates the detachment from a point in space or object. *Din* refers to the detachment from a period or lapse of time, while *de la* refers to detachment from a well-defined moment (see 5.12).

a. Whenever the departing point is a certain limited place, like a town or city, Romanian prefers *de la,* but it can also use *din: Vin de la Oradea* or *Vin din Oradea.* Only *din* is used when the departing point or origin is a territory (county, province, country, continent): *Venim din statul Washington.* 'We came from Washington State.'

b. *De la* indicates an event taking place at an hour of the day: *cursul de la ora 3* 'the course at three o'clock'. If a part of day is mentioned, *de* only is used: *Orele de dimineaţă* (see 5.4d). The day, month, year use *din: întîlnirea din 13 decembrie* 'the meeting of December 13', *Revoluţia din 1848* 'The Revolution of 1848'. *Din* and *de la* also express the point of departure in time according to the same rules: *începînd din anul 1950* 'beginning with 1950', *de la început* 'from the beginning'.

5.7 *Despre* 'about'. *Despre* is the most typical preposition of relation: *un roman despre ţărani* 'a novel about peasants'. *De* can replace *despre* after certain verbs like *a aminti* 'to remind', *a vorbi* 'to talk', *a spune* 'to say'. *Spune de ei că nu au fost buni.* 'He says about them that they were not good.'

5.8 *După* 'after'. As in English it expresses:

a. posteriority: *după război* 'after the war.'

b. conformity: *pictură după natură* 'painting after nature'. In certain cases, however, it can be translated by 'according to': *După Eminescu, iubirea e o putere cosmică.* 'According to Eminescu, love is a cosmic power.'

In Romanian, *după* can also express:

c. the place right beyond something: *după colț* 'around the corner', *după ușă* 'behind the door'. In this latter case, *după* can be replaced by *în spatele* plus the genitive of the noun (see 2.1).

d. purpose: *Merge după cumpărături.* 'He goes to shop' i.e. for purchases.

5.9 *Fără* 'without'. In both Romanian and English, this preposition expresses lack: *casa fără ferestre* 'the house without windows' *Fără* is used also for subtraction: *6 fără 2 fac 4.* '6 less 2 makes 4.' When preceding verbs it requires either the infinitive or the subjunctive: *Fără a aștepta prea mult a plecat acasă* or *Fără să aștepte prea mult a plecat acasă.* 'Without waiting too much he left for home.' (see 5.1)

5.10 *În* 'in, into'.

a. It is first used to indicate existence or movement in a certain time or place: *în anul 1972* 'in the year 1972', *Intru în casă.* 'I go into the house.'

b. mode: *fiecare în felul lui* 'everyone in his way', *în general* 'in general'. There are certain expressions like *pictură în ulei* that may remind one of uses typical of other prepositions, namely *de* and *cu* (see 5.3c and 6.41). Besides these two, *în* is also used in certain limited cases where English uses the combination of two nouns. *În* appears more often in expression from arts and music: *pictură în ulei* 'oil painting' or 'painting in oil', *sonata în do minor* 'Sonata in C minor'. There are other examples outside the arts, where *în* may be replaced by *cu: O haină în carouri* 'plaid coat' This use is restricted to patterns existing in materials etc.

c. measure: *Are zece metri în înălţime.* 'It has ten meters in height.' Equivalent expression: *Are o înălţime de zece metri.*

d. the result of a transformation: *Ploaia s-a schimbat în zăpadă.* 'The rain changed into snow.'

e. reference: *Ce a spus în legătură cu aceasta?* 'What did he say in connection with this?'

f. direction: *Merg în jos.* 'He goes downward.'

g. relation: *lat în umeri* 'with broad shoulders'

h. division: *împărţit în/la trei* 'divided into three'

5.11 *Între, dintre, printre* 'among, between'.

a. *Între* is used to indicate an object existing among other objects: *o casă între două străzi* 'a house between two streets'; penetrating among known objects: *S-a culcat între noi.* 'He lay down between us.'; reciprocity (among a mass of similar objects): *Oamenii comunică între ei.* 'Men communicate among themselves.'; approximation: *între orele 9 şi 10* 'between 9 and 10 o'clock'.

b. *Dintre* indicates the detachment of an object from the interior or from other objects: *Luna se înalţă dintre brazi.* 'The moon rises among the fir trees.' As such, it introduces the complement of the superlative: *El e cel mai inteligent dintre noi.* 'He is the most intelligent among us.'

c. *Printre* man express the movement in a space among objects and may also express a static situation. In both cases it possesses a vagueness that indicates that the space in which the movement takes place or the objects exist is not fully defined: *Trece printre flori.* 'He passes among flowers.' *Stă* *printre flori.* 'He is seated among flowers.' Since it has a vague character, *printre* resembles 'among' or amidst' in a way.

5.12 *Întru, dintru* 'in, from'. Although considered by Romanian grammars as independent prepositions they are used today mostly with the indefinite article in the singular as counterpart of *în* and *de*. *Într-un loc* 'in a place', *într-o casă* 'in a house', *dintr-un loc* 'from a place', *dintr-o casă* 'from a house'. There are also certain expressions like *dintru început* 'from the beginning', *întru totul* 'in all, through and through' that are still in use.

5.13 *La* 'at, to'. Like its English counterparts, *la* expresses:

a. the place: *Mănînc la restaurant.* 'I eat at the restaurant.'

b. the direction of the movement, the limit of the extension of a movement and the arrival point: *O ia la stînga.* 'He takes the left.' *Merge de la Cluj la Bucureşti.* 'He goes from Cluj to Bucharest.'

c. the exact time, hour, and date: *la ora 5* 'at 5 o'clock', *la 15 decembrie* 'on December 15' as well as the occasion: *la începutul anului* 'at the beginning of the year, or the age', *La şase ani Ion era un copil frumos.* 'At the age of six Ion was a nice child.'

d. the distribution of a known number of units to a known number of beneficiaries: *o pîine la trei oameni* 'a bread for three people' (equivalent of *pentru* - see 5.17a).

e. mode: *Merge la pas.* 'He goes at a constant pace.'

f. *la* is the equivalent of the dative: *Le-am dat la mătuşa* (equivalent of *Le-am dat mătuşii*). 'I gave them to my aunt.'

The translation of *la* differs when it expresses:

g. periodicity: *Luaţi la cinci ore o pilulă.* 'Take a pill every five hours.'

h. the future: *La inarnă o să mergem la Sinaia.* 'In the winter we'll go to Sinaia.'

i. relation: *fioros la înfăţişare* 'of a frightening semblance'. In Romanian, *la*, expressing the existence in or movement towards a point in space or time, is the perfect counterpart of *de la* which expresses detachment from a point in space or time. The same relationship exists between *în* and *din*. On the other hand, the relationship between *în* and *la* is the same as the relationship between *din* and *de la* (see 5.5).

În expresses the existence in or movement towards the interior seen as a space or as a lapse of time. *La* expresses the same thing, but it is more precise, indicating the existence in or movement towards a point in space or time. Practically, the same rules apply to the use of *în* and *la* as for *din* and *de la*: *Am mers la Cluj.* 'I went to Cluj.' But *în anul 1850* 'in the year 1850' (lapse of time); *la ora trei* 'at three o'clock'. Note, however, the form: *în oraşul Cluj* 'in the city of Cluj' or *în ziua de întîi ianuarie* 'on January 1'.

5.14 *Lîngă* 'next to'. *S-a mutat lîngă mine.* 'He moved next to me.' *A rămas lîngă mine.* 'He remained next to me.'

5.15 *Pe* 'on, upon'. Although their basic meaning is the same, *pe* and its English equivalents differ considerably in their use. They both express the placing on a surface, the contact: *Lăutar pe acoperiş.* 'Fiddler on the roof.' Resemblances, however, stop here. In Romanian, *pe* expresses:

a. the time when used with weather conditions: *Nu merge pe ploaie.* 'Don't go when it rains.'; or the approximation in time: *Soşeste pe seară.* 'He arrives sometimes in the evening.'; or the period: *planul pe anul acesta* 'the plan for this year'.

b. the object of exchange: *Schimb pick-upul pe magnetofon.* 'I am exchanging the record player for a tape recorder.' (see 5.17b)

c. the distribution of an unknown number of units to an unknown number of beneficiaries: *Studenţii sînt repartizaţi pe grupe.* 'Students are distributed in groups.'

d. mode: *Vine pe nesimţite.* 'He comes stealthily.' *A intrat pe uşa aceea.* 'He came in by that door.'

e. *pe* as a sign of the accusative. When preceding names or nouns indicating persons, *pe* becomes a sign of the accusative: *Am văzut-o pe mama.* 'I saw mother.' *L-am trimis pe Ion.* 'I sent Ion.' Note in this case the doubling of the object.

Compounds. In order to express approximation in space or time, *pe* is used with *la* or adverbs: *pe acolo* 'around there' (as opposed to the definite *acolo*); *pe aici* 'around here'. In case *pe* is followed by a noun of place, a numeral or adverb expressing the approximate time, it must necessarily be combined with *la: pe la zece* 'around 10 o'clock'. Besides *pe la, pe* has other compounds: *pe după* 'around', *pe lîngă* 'beside', *pe sub* 'under' used to express both the movement and the extension of static things: *Merge pe lîngă boi.* 'He walks beside the oxen.' *Canalele sînt pe sub oraş.* 'The sewers are under the city.' *Pe din* plus a numeral indicates the way of sharing: *Impărţit pe din două.* 'Split in two.'

5.16 *Peste* 'above, over'. In addition to its fundamental meaning of 'over', used with both verbs of movement and position *(Norul atîrnă peste oraş.* 'The cloud hangs over the city.' *Avionul zboară peste oraş.* 'The plane flies over the city.'), this preposition can mean in Romanian:

a. the passage across: *Omul trece peste apă.* 'The man goes across the river.'

b. the future: *Peste două zile.* 'In two days.' *Soseşte peste cîtva timp.* 'He arrives after some time.' Note the lack of change when the verb is in the past: *A venit peste trei zile.* 'He came three days later.'

c. duration: *Peste zi a fost frig.* 'During the day it was cold.' Of limited use: only *peste zi, peste noapte* are frequently heard. For other nouns, Romanian perfers *în timpul: în timpul săptămînii* 'during the week'.

Compounds. *De peste* forms a fixed expression with *tot: de peste tot cumprinsul pămîntului* 'from all over the whole world'.

5.17 *Pentru* 'for'. As in English, *pentru* expresses:

a. distribution, attribution: *Marfa e pentru export.* 'The goods are for export.'

b. exchange: *Un regat pentru un cal.* 'A kingdon for a horse.' (equivalent of *pe* - see 5.14b).

c. cause, purpose: *A fost decorat pentru merite deosebite.* 'He was decorated for exceptional merits.' *A scrie pentru bani* 'to write for money'.

Compounds. Very much in use are the conjunctional phrases *pentru că* 'because' and *pentru ca* 'in order to'; the first is used with the indicative and the second is used with the subjunctive: *Nu vreau să merg pentru că mi-e somn.* 'I don't want to go because I'm sleepy.' *Nu vreau să merg pentru ca să poată merge el.* 'I don't want to go in order that he may go.' Also *pentru ce* 'why'.

5.18 *Pînă* 'till, until'. This preposition is used only in connection with other prepositions or adverbs (see 4.0 - 4.2) or the relative pronoun *ce* (*pînă ce* 'as long as, while').

When used independently, it is the equivalent of *pînă cînd: pînă să plece* is the equivalent of *pînă cînd să plece* 'before he could leave'. Note the mandatory use of the verb in the subjunctive.

Compounds. *Pînă la* 'up to, until': *peisajul pînă la Bucureşti* 'the landscape down to Bucharest'. In this phrase *pînă* is used to encompass the landscape along the road between the point which the speaker takes as point of reference and Bucharest, while *peisajul la Bucureşti* means 'the landscape at Bucharest, in a certain place'. *Pînă la* plus a numeral means 'up to': *pînă la 20 de oameni* 'up to 20 people'.

5.19 *Spre, înspre* 'towards'; *dinspre* 'from'; *către* 'towards'. *Spre* indicates the orientation or the direction to be taken: *spre oraş* 'toward the city', *spre Satu-Mare* 'towards Satu-Mare'. Like the English 'towards', *spre* has also a temporal meaning: *spre dimineaţă* 'towards morning'. These two meanings have a perfect equivalent in *către: către oraş, catre Satu-Mare,* *către dimineață.*

The difference between these two prepositions appears in other uses: *către* is used also for address: *A vorbit către ei.* 'He spoke to them.', while the compound preposition *de către* indicates the agent (*făcut de către el* 'made by him'), *de către* being the equivalent of *de* (see 5.41). *Spre* is used before infinitives: *spre a munci* 'in order to work' (see 5.1a) or nouns: *E spre binele umanității.* 'It is for the good of mankind.', indicating in both cases the purpose. *Către* replaces *spre* only when the meaning is concrete.

Înspre and *dinspre* have only concrete meanings expressing either position or movement. They are perfect opposites. *Înspre* - like *spre,* but with more emphasis - indicates the direction followed from the point of reference to another point. *Dinspre* indicates the opposite direction, from another point to the point of reference. *El merge înspre Seattle. (El merge spre Seattle.)* 'He goes toward Seattle.', and the movement in the opposite direction: *El vine dinspre Seattle.* 'He is coming from Seattle.' A more precise translation would be 'He is going in the direction of Seattle,' and 'He is coming from the direction of Seattle.'

Dinspre can also express family relationship from the viewpoint of the descendent: *bunica dinspre mamă* 'the grandmother on her mother's side'.

5.20 *Sub* 'under'. As in English, *sub* expresses:

a. the space situated beneath a certain thing: *sub masă* 'under the table'.

b. the epoch named after the rule or ruler: *Moldava sub Stefan cel Mare* 'Moldavia under Stephen the Great', *Dobrogea sub turci* 'Dobrudja under the Turks'.

c. the cause, the mode: *A luat-o sub semnătură.* 'He took it under signature.'

EXERCISE 3. Prepositions of place:

Am plecat _________ *Oradea. Acolo am stat* _________ *un prieten care tocmai venise* _________ *Statele Unite. Mi-a povestit tot ce a văzut* _________ *tara aceasta. A văzut totul* _________ *New-York* _________ *Los Angeles. Intr-o zi venea* _________ (from - direction) *Seattle şi se îndrepta* _________ *Portland cînd a întîlnit* _________ *o pompă de benzină o cunoştinţă* _________ *România. Era un fost* _________ *student* _________ *universitatea* _________ *Cluj, cu care făcuse cunoştinţă* _________ *judeţul Sibiu. Au vorbit multe lucruri, iar* _________ *acolo au plecat* _________ (upwards) *restaurant. Cînd au intrat* _________ *uşă, chelnerul i-a văzut* _________ *bar şi a venit* _________ *ei. S-au aşezat* _________ *masă.*

EXERCISE 4. Prepositions of time:

Ieri _________ *ora trei* _________ *un sfert mă plimbam în faţa facultăţii. M-am întîlnit cu o prietenă. N-o mai văzusem* _________ *două luni şi mi-a spus: -Am să vine la tine* _________ *cîteva zile. -Spune-mi precis* _________ *ce zi şi* _________ *ce oră să te aştept. -*_________ *4 februarie* _________ *ora trei. -Dar sper să te văd şi* _________ *Anul Nou* (approximation). *-Bine, acum sînt foarte ocupată, stau la bibliotecă* _________ *opt dimineaţa* _________ *trei după masa. Am un plan de muncă strict* _________ *zile şi* _________ *ore. Am de terminat o lucrare rămasă* _________ *anul trecut,*

EXERCISE 5. Prepositions of distribution and of partition:

Am cumpărat de la magazin trei perechi de ciorapi _________ *zece lei perechea* _________ *mine şi zece perechi* _________ *cei cinci fraţi ai mei.* _________ *fiecare cîte două perechi. Am împărţit foarte simplu zece* _________ *cinci, am împărţit ciorapii în mod egal* _________ *cei cinci fraţi ai mei. Nu am favorizat pe nici unul* _________ *ei. Am mulţi prieteni şi* _________ *ei unii mi-au făcut deja cadouri, ar trebui să cumpăr* _________ *fiecare cîte ceva.*

EXERCISE 6. Prepositions of quantity and measure:

Camera mea e lungă _________ *cinci metri şi lată* _________ *patru. Are o înălţime* _________ *trei metri. Pe perete am pus douăzeci şi cinci* _________ *fotografii de artişti celebri. Dar nu-mi mai plac, aşa că am să le vînd* _________ *kilogram. Sau crezi că o să le pot vinde* _________ *bucată?*

EXERCISE 7. Other prepositions:

__________ *cine crezi că e cartea aceasta? -E o carte* __________ *poezie. Probabil că e* __________ *Eminescu. -Nu, e* __________ *un poet nou, prieten* __________ *noi. E vorba* __________ *dragoste? -Da, numai poezia* __________ *dragoste e interesantă,* __________ *dragoste nu se poate. -E o carte,* __________ *debut? Da, dar* __________ *mare succes.*

6.0 Adverbs, nouns, verbs as prepositions. Other parts of speech may become prepositions.

6.1 Adverbs become prepositions by taking the definite article for masculine or feminine depending on their ending:

Adverb:	Preposition:	Translation:
dedesubt	*dedesubtul*	under
deasupră	*deasupra*	above
împotrivă	*împotriva*	against
înainte	*înaintea*	in front of
dinainte	*dinaintea*	in front of
înapoi	*înapoia*	in back of
dinapoi	*dinapoia*	from in back of
îndărăt	*îndărătul*	in back of
dindărăt	*dindărătul*	from in back of

Having the form of nouns, they require the noun, adjective, or pronoun that necessarily follows them to take the form of the genitive: *dedesubtul mesei* 'under the table,' *îndărătul carului cu boi* 'behind the cart pulled by oxen'. *Ca* 'than', *cît* 'as', *decît* 'than' are other examples of adverbs used as prepositions when they are followed by an accusative. All three have prepositional value when used to express comparative degree: *mai inteligent ca mine* 'more intelligent than me', *greu cît tine* 'heavy as you', *mai mic decît tine* 'smaller than you'. *Ca* is used for the comparative of superiority and inferiority. *Cît* is less frequently used for the comparative of equality; it also has the form of *cît şi: drăguţ cît şi el* 'nice as him'. They all require the accusative.

6.2 The noun *graţie* 'thanks to': *graţie ajutorului meu* 'thanks to my help' (because of my help).

6.3 There are only two examples of verbs, both in the past participle form, and they require the use of the dative: *datorită, mulţumită* 'thanks to'. *Datorită lui* 'thanks to him', *mulţumită mamei sale* 'thanks to his mother'.

7.0 Phrasal prepositions (*locuţiuni prepoziţionale*). Phrasal prepositions are constructions using different parts of speech in addition to one or two prepositions, the whole having a single prepositional meaning. Their lexical value, however, is greater than that of the simple prepositions.

7.1 Preposition plus noun (always with definite article): *în faţa* 'in front of', *în spatele* 'behind', *din pricina* 'because', *din partea* 'from', *cu excepţia* 'with the exception of', *în privinţa* 'regarding', *de-a lungul* 'along', *depa latul, de-a curmezisul* 'crossing'. *De-a lungul drumului* 'along the way', *cu excepţia celor doi prieteni* 'with the exception of the two friends'. They are always used with a noun or pronoun in the genitive.

7.2 Noun-preposition or preposition-noun-preposition. *Faţă de* 'in regard to', *din cauză de* 'because of', *în loc de* 'instead of', *cu privire la* 'in regard to', *la un loc cu* 'together with'. *Nu ştiu nimic cu privire la el.* 'I don't anything in regard to him.' *Se află la un loc cu el.* 'He's together with him.' All of these phrasal prepositions are followed by the accusative case form.

7.3 Adjectives-preposition or preposition-adjective-preposition. *Cu tot, toată* 'in spite of', *relativ la, referitor la* 'relating to', *in acord cu* 'according to'. *Referitor la această problema* 'relating to this question'.

7.4 Adverb-preposition or preposition-adverb-preposition. *In afară de* 'outside of', *în sus de* 'above', *în jos de* 'below' *împreuna cu* 'together with'. *Vine împreuna cu mine.* 'He comes together with me.'

7.5 There are many more expressions that are similar in function to the prepositional phrases. For instance, *în scopul, cu scopul, în vederea* 'with the purpose of', *în cazul* 'in the case of', *cu condiţia* 'provided that', *în eventualitatea* 'in the eventuality of' etc. *În cazul revenirii lui nu spun nimic.* 'In case he returns (or 'In case of his return,), I say nothing.' *Mă pregătesc în eventualitatea vinirii lui.* 'I prepare myself in the eventuality of his return.'

8.0 A few prepositions may function adverbially, especially through ellipsis; their number is very limited:

a. *la = cam* 'approximately'. *Erau la zece elevi.* 'There were approximately ten students.'

b. *Fără* 'without', *cu* 'with' can be used for an answer, or at the end of a question: *Cum bei vinul, cu sifon sau fără?* 'How do you drink wine, with or without soda?' The answer in this case can be either: *-Cu!* or *-Fără!*

c. *contra, împotriva* 'against', *pentru* 'for' can be used also in themselves: *Eşti pentru sau contra? -Sint contra!* 'Are you for or against? I'm against!'

9.0 Repetition of the preposition. In Romanian there is no rule prohibiting the repetition of the same preposition in a sentence. For most of the prepositions, the repetition is necessary: *a mînca şi a bea* 'to eat and drink', *cu fierăstrăul şi cu ciocanul* 'with the saw and with the hammer', *la munte şi la mare* 'in the mountains and at the sea'. In other cases the repetition is not mandatory, and when it exists, it indicates emphasis.

APPENDIX

Verbs occuring commonly with certain prepositions.

a se abate de la	*Nu mă abat de la drum.*	I don't go off the road.
a se abţine de la	*Mă abţin de la vot.*	I abstain from voting.
a abuza de	*A abuza de cineva.*	To abuse someone.
a acoperi cu	*Acoperit cu zăpadă.*	Covered by snow.
a acuza de	*A fost acuzat de crimă de către tribunal.*	He was accused of crime by the tribunal.
a adăuga la	*Adăuga la ce-am spus cîteva cuvinte.*	He adds some words to what I said.
a afla de, despre	*N-am aflat nimic despre el.*	I didn't find out anything about him.
a ajunge la	*Am ajuns la destinaţie.*	I arrived at my destination.
a se amesteca în	*Nu mă amestec în treburile altora.*	I don't meddle in other people's business.
a se apleca peste, deasupra	*Se apleacă peste prăpastie.*	He leans over the precipice.
a se angaja la	*Angajează-te la fabrică.*	Go into service at the factory.
a se apropia de	*Se apropie de mine.*	He comes close to me.
a auzi de, despre	*N-am auzit de el.* *N-am auzit despre el.*	I have never heard of him. I didn't hear about him.
a se baza pe	*Nu te baza pe el.*	Don't rely on him.
a se certa cu	*S-a certat cu prietenul lui.*	He quarreled with his friend.
a colabora la	*A colaborat cu el la un tratat.*	He collaborated with him on a treaty.
a compara cu	*Am comparat-o cu Maria.*	I compared her to Maria.
a confunda cu	*Mă confunzi cu cineva.*	You are confusing me with someone.
a consimţi la	*Nu pot consimţi la asta.*	I cannot consent to this.
a constrînge la, prin	*El m-a constrîns prin toate mijloacele.*	He constrained me by all means to do this.
a crede în	*Nu credeţi in zvonuri.*	Don't believe in rumors.
a cumpăra de la	*Am cumpărat-o de la librărie.*	I bought it from the bookstore.
a curăţi de	*Ti-am curăţat haina de praf.*	I dusted off your coat.
a se deosebi de	*Te deosebeşti de mine.*	You are different from me.
a se depărta de	*S-a depărtat de Seattle.*	He moved away from Seattle.
a se despărţi de	*V-aţi despărţit de ei.*	You parted from them.
a se dezbrăca	*S-a dezbrăcat de haină.*	He took his coat off.

a elibera de	*S-au eliberat de sclavie.*	They liberated themselves from slavery.
a exclude din	*A fost exclus din organizaţie.*	He was excluded from the organization.
a se feri de	*Feriţi-vă de cîine.*	Beware the dog.
a se folosi de	*M-am folosit de creion.*	I used the pencil.
a se gîndi la	*Ne-am gîndit la tine.*	We thought about you.
a se îmbrăca cu	*M-am îmbrăcat cu haina.*	
a se împotrivi la	*Ma împotrivesc la aceste metode.*	I am against these methods.
a se încrede în	*Nu ma încred în tine.*	I don't trust you.
a încunoştinţa de	*A fost încunoştinţat de catastrofa.*	He was informed about the catastrophe.
a începe cu, prin	*A început prin a citi.*	He began by reading.
	A început cu cititul.	He began by reading.
a se îndepărta de	*M-am îndepărtat de oraş.*	I moved away from the city.
a înlocui cu	*M-au înlocuit cu el.*	They replaced me with him.
a se înrudi cu	*Te înrudeşti cu Ion.*	You are related to Ion.
a se întoarce la	*S-a întors la mine.*	He returned to me.
a întrebuinţa la, pentru	*Întrebuinţat la (pentru) curăţat.*	Used for cleaning.
a se înţelege cu	*M-am înţeles bine cu el.*	We understood each other.
a învinovăţi de	*M-au învinovăţit de furt.*	They accused me of robbery.
a se învoi cu...la	*M-am învoit cu el la toate.*	I agreed with him on all points.
a se lipsi de	*Nu mă pot lipsi de cărţi.*	I can't be without books.
a lupta cu	*Luptă cu duşmanii.*	He fights the foes.
a (se) mărita cu	*S-a măritat cu Ion.*	She married Ion.
a se mîndri cu	*Ma mîndresc cu maşina nouă.*	I am proud of the new car.
a medita la	*Meditez la soarta omului.*	I meditate on the destiny of man.
a se mira de	*M-am mirat de vorbele.*	I was astonished by his words.
a mulţumi pentru	*Am mulţumit pentru cadou.*	I thanked (him, you, etc.) for the present.
a mirosi a	*Miroase a vin.*	He smells of wine.
a munci la, în	*Muncesc la fabrică.*	I work (I am a worker) in the factory.
	Muncesc in fabrică.	(It can mean only incidental work in the factory.)
a se ocupa de, cu	*Mă ocup de traducere.* *Mă ocup cu traducerile.*	My business in translating.
a se obişnui cu	*M-am obişnuit cu clima.*	I got used to the climate.

a-i păsa de	*Nu-mi pasă de el.*	I don't care about him.
a păzi de	*Îl păzea de frig.*	It protected him against the cold.
a se pricepe la	*A se pricepe la maşini.*	To be an expert in cars.
a răspunde la	*Răspund la întrebare.*	I answer the question.
a se sătura de	*M-am săturat de el.*	I am fed up with him.
a scăpa de	*Am scăpat de el.*	I got rid of him.
a semăna cu	*Seamănă cu tine.*	He resembles you.
a se sprijini de	*Se sprijină de perete.*	I leans on the wall.
a se teme de	*Mă teamă de doctor.*	I am afraid of doctors.
a trage de	*Trage de uşă.*	He pulls the door.
a se uita la, spre	*Mă uit la/spre rîu.*	I look at/toward the river.
a vindeca de	*E vindecat de boală.*	He is healed from (his) sickness.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Ciobanu, Fulvia. *Observaţii asupra prepoziţiilor şi locuţiunilor prepoziţionale în limba română.* In: *Studii de gramatică,* Vol. al II-lea, Ed. Academiei R.P.R., 1957, p. 91-104.

______________. *Valorile prepoziţiilor în construcţie cu adverbele.* In: *Studii de gramatică,* Vol. III, Bucureşti, Ed. Academiei R.P.R., 1961, p. 43-66.

Craşoveanu, D. *Locuţiuni prepoziţionale.* In: *Analele Universităţii din Timişoara. Seria Stiinţe filologice,* V (1967), p. 227-231.

Gramatica limbii române. Vol. I. Ediţia a II-a revăzută şi adăugită. Tiraj nou. Bucureşti, Editura Republicii Socialiste România, 1966, p. 588.

Iordan, Iorgu, Valerie Guţu Romalo, Alexandru Niculescu. *Structura morfologică a limbii române contemporane.* Bucureşti, Editura Stiinţifică, 1967, p. 276-288.

Vasiliu, Laura. *Cîteva observaţii asupra conţinutului semantic al prepoziţiilor în lumina categoriilor generalului şi particularului.* In: *Probleme de lingvistică generală.* Vol. III. Bucureşti, Ed. Academiei R.P.R., 1961, p. 139-148.

______________. *Cuvinte şi grupuri de cuvinte cu funcţie prepoziţională.* In: *Limba română,* Anul XIII (1964), nr. 2, p. 103-110.

______________. *Note pentru definiţia prepoziţiei.* In: *Studii şi cercetări lingvistice. Omagiu lui al. Graur.* Cu prilejul împlinirii a 60 de ani. Bucureşti, Ed. Academiei R.P.R. 1960, p. 771-773.

______________. *Schiţă de sistem al prepoziţiilor limbii române.* In: *Studii de gramatică.* Vol. III. Bucureşti, Ed. Academiei R.P.R., 1961, p. 11-42.

ROMANIAN GRAMMAR PAMPHLETS

James E. Augerot, Editor

V. POSSESSIVE AND DATIVE CONSTRUCTIONS IN ROMANIAN

by

Frederick B. Agard

This work was developed pursuant to a contract between
the U.S. Office of Education and the Center for Applied Linguistics

(OEC-0-72-1588)

1973

PREFACE

These Romanian grammar pamphlets grew out of meetings held at the American Council of Learned Societies for the development of materials for Eastern European languages and subsequent funding by the U.S. Office of Education through the Center for Applied Linguistics. Priorities for language materials were established by polling most of those concerned with the teaching of Romanian in the United States. It was decided that, among other things, a series of grammar pamphlets, each treating specific problems and providing exercises, was the best way of attacking the shortage of materials for students beyond the first-year manuals. The pamphlets were thought useful because of the flexibility they would offer to a field in which teaching philosophies differed greatly from institution to institution and student needs beyond the first year course are also very disparate. The teacher of Romanian will have the opportunity to tailor his course to his students' needs using any number of the pamphlets in whatever order he determines to be most fruitful. Each pamphlet is basically independent of all the others, although there is some cross reference and the series has been arranged in an order suggesting the best use, all other things being equal. I would suggest that the teacher might find the first 3 pamphlets useful even before the first year of Romanian is completed. The remainder could very well serve as companion units to a second-year course that concentrates on readings and a refinement of the students' appreciation of finer points of Romanian grammar and expression. Eventually we hope to see more materials for advanced courses including a social science reader, more grammar pamphlets and a reference grammar, as well as a good dictionary.

Each pamphlet contains exercises appropriate to the materials and a brief bibliography for the enterprising student who wants to begin to make a serious study of the language.

The Editor takes full responsibility for the arrangement and the typography of the series. The particular theoretical approach and content of

each pamphlet varies considerably, however, and the individual authors remain responsible in these areas. We felt that this was not in any way detrimental in relation to the goals of the series. We included two of the pamphlets in the original Romanian. We realize that these will be somewhat difficult for the less advanced student, but he must begin to make the transition some time and these will help him to that end.

I thank Ms. Dorothy Rapp of the Center for Applied Linguistics for her always pleasant logistical assistance and to Ms. Kathleen Murphy, the project Secretary and in fact, although not in title, Assistant Editor, I owe a great deal. Professor Mircea Borcilă of the University of Cluj has been a constant and delightful consultant for things Romanian.

The titles and authors of the ten pamphlets in the recommended order are as follows:

I. SOME ROMANIAN DETERMINERS by Frederick B. Agard
II. ROMANIAN INTONATION AND STRESS by Robert L. Rankin
III. THE CONJUGATION OF THE ROMANIAN VERB by James E. Augerot
IV. PREPOSITIONS by Cornel Capuşan
V. POSSESSIVE AND DATIVE CONSTRUCTIONS IN ROMANIAN by Frederick B. Agard
VI. PRONUME ŞI FORME ENCLITICE by Anca Belchiţă Hartular
VII. PATTERNS OF SYNTAX IN ROMANIAN by Robert L. Rankin
VIII. NOUN CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN by James Algeo
IX. ADVERB CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN by James Algeo
X. STRUCTURA ETIMOLOGICĂ A VOCABULARULUI ROMÂNESC by Theodor Hristea

James E. Augerot
Editor
University of Washington
May 15, 1973

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface..i
Table of Contents..iii
1.1 Introduction...1
2.0 PD phrases in larger NP's..............................1
2.1 Possessive proper......................................2
Exercise 1...3
2.2 Subjective possessive..................................4
Exercise 2...5
2.3 Objective possessive...................................5
Exercise 3...6
3.0 PD phrases as objects of prepositions..................6
Exercise 4...7
4.0 PD phrases as dative complements.......................7
Exercise 5...9
5.0 Romanian pronouns......................................10
5.1 The personal pronouns..................................11
Exercises 6-8..12
Exercises 9-10...14
Exercise 11..15
Exercise 12..16
5.2 The non-personal pronouns..............................17
Exercise 13-15...18
Passage for analysis.......................................20
Footnotes..22
Vocabulary...24
Bibliography...28

POSSESSIVE AND DATIVE CONSTRUCTIONS IN ROMANIAN

1.1 The present pamphlet deals with those constituents of Romanian grammatical structure which are formally marked, by the presence of a certain suffix, as fulfilling either a possessive or a dative function in the construction of which they are a part. Let us first understand the terms possessive and dative as we shall be using them.

1.2 In a companion pamphlet of this series, entitled "Some Romanian Determiners", we find the following passage: "In this language a noun phrase can be marked by an element which equips the noun phrase to function as either a possessive modifier or another noun (like English *the child's* in *the child's parents* or *of the week* in *the days of the week*), or as a dative complement (in other words, an indirect object) in a verb phrase (like English *John* in *send John some money* or *to the boys* in *give my greetings to the boys*). The Romanian possessive/dative marker (PD) is a ... suffix which attaches itself to any determiner." (p. 9-10). That pamphlet was concerned only with the variations caused in the *form* of a determiner by suffixation of PD. As further pointed out, the suffix in question regularly comes in two complementary shapes; consonantal /-i/ when the head noun in the phrase is singular (as in *băiatului, unui băiat, acestui băiat*), unstressed /-or/ when that noun is plural (as in *băieţilor, acelor băieţi, multor băieţi*). For the actual forms taken by the determiners within PD phrases we refer the student to the other pamphlet and concentrate in the present one on the function of PD phrases in larger constructions: (2) in larger noun phrases, (3) as objects of prepositions, (4) in verb phrases. The first time through we shall consider only the noun phrase (NP) proper; later we shall return to deal also with pronouns, which are actually a special class of substitute NP.

2.0 PD Phrases in Larger NP's. The function of a PD phrase as post-head modifier in a larger NP is here called "possessive", in some descriptions "genitive"; the two terms are essentially equivalent. We prefer the former because the PD phrase in this function closely parallels what are usually called "possessive phrases" in English. Both the English form *child's* in *the child's parents* and the Romanian form *copilului* in *părinţii copilului* are often said to be in the "possessive case",[1] but we shall avoid the term "case" altogether as being poorly applicable to either language.[2] What is important to keep in mind from the start is that the term "possessive" is in reality a cover term for several different meaning relationships, only one of which is actually that of possessor, i.e. the relationship of one who has something to that which he has (*John's farm, John's head-ache, John's cousins...*). We take up the three main relational values of the possessive PD one by one: (2.1) Possessive Proper, (2.2) Subjective Possessive, (2.3) Objective Possessive.

2.1 Possessive Proper. The majority of PD phrases come under this heading, which expresses the relationship of *having* in a very broad sense. In the display of examples that follows here, observe that the PD phrase in the right column identifies the person or thing that in one or another sense *has* that which is named by the head noun in the left column.

casa	*lui Radu Popescu*	*o cauză*	*a nici unei probleme**
istoria	*Statelor Unite*	*bazele principale*	*ale multor legi*
mîinile	*artistului*	*nişte studenţi*	*ai profesorului Pop*
treburile	*acestor tineri*	*doi fii*	*ai domnului Iorga*
cazul	*celeilalte doamne**	*cîteva obiceiuri*	*ale acestui porpor*
braţele	*fiecărei mame**	*un pas înainte*	*al întregii ţări**
pacea	*primelor ore*	*primul drept*	*al tuturor oamenilor*
sîngele	*celor mai mari erci*	*foamea grozavă*	*a unui copil*
numele	*cîtorva autori*		

We may now observe the following grammatical constraints that apply to the PD phrase as modifier.

(a) As seen in all the examples, the PD phrase always follows the head noun, like an English possessive introduced by *of* (as in *the house of my father*) but never one marked by the suffix *'s* (as in *my father's house*).

(b) Again as seen in all the examples, the PD phrase always contains a determiner (Det), since only a Det is privileged to accept the PD marker. A lone noun simply cannot carry the suffix.[3] We may recall that proper nouns have a built-in Det which shows up as the actual suffixed definite article (DA) in many feminines (e.g. *Rodica, Sanda; România, Europa*), but is missing in all masculines and some feminines so that the adaptation of *lui* is required for producing PD phrases[4] (e.g. *lui Ion, lui Iris, lui aprilie*[5]).

(c) The upper box of examples shows PD phrases occurring immediately after head nouns carrying the DA suffix, with no intervening link. The lower box, on the other hand, illustrates the rule that a PD phrase modifying a head noun that is either (1) not definitized, or (2) definitized but followed by an intervening modifier, or (3) omitted to avoid reptition, must itself be introduced by the article /al-/. This so-called "possessive article" shows gender/number agreement with the head of the larger NP.

(d) The starred examples show how any f.sg. noun in a PD phrase, or any adjective modifying a f.sg. noun in a PD phrase, where the Det + PD is not suffixed directly to it, must carry a PD agreement ending. This ending is identical in shape to the corresponding plural ending, except for /-i/ matching both /-i/ and /-uri/.

(e) The quantifiers /mult-, cît-(va), alt-/,[6] and the pre-determiners /tot-/ and /amîndo-/, may take PD /-or/ with a countable noun head in the plural; /fiecare, oricare/ may take PD /-i/ with a singular head; and /vreun-, nici un-/ may take PD with any head.

We are now ready to practice producing PD phrases as modifiers in large NP's. Our first model for this exercise will be the following type of paraphrase of the possessor-possessed relation.

numele pe care îl are copilul[7] → *numele copilului*

the name which the child has → the name of the child
the child's name

doi prieteni pe care îi are această fată → *doi prieteni ai acestei fete*

two friends that this girl has → two friends of this girl
girl's

EXERCISE 1. Fill the blanks on the right being sure to obey all the grammatical rules set forth in (1-5) above.

maşina veche		*o au studenţii*	→ maşina veche a studenţilor
bărbatul		*îl are cealaltă femeie*	→ ____________
boala		*o are bătrînul ăsta*	→ ____________
culoarea		*o au ochii fetei*	→ ____________
rîurile		*le are România*	→ ____________
munţii cei mai înalţi		*îi are lumea*	→ ____________
multe regiuni		*le are această ţară*	→ ____________
toate ferestrele	*pe care*	*le are casa noastră*	→ ____________
cealaltă soţie		*o are Ion*	→ ____________
preţul atît de înalt		*îl are cafeaua*	→ ____________
un frate		*îl are regele*	→ ____________
viaţa		*o are un cîine*	→ ____________
marile nevoi		*le are poporul acela*	→ ____________
istoria		*o are o limbă*	→ ____________
problemele		*le au mulţi artişti*	→ ____________
visurile		*le au cei tineri*	→ ____________

2.2 Subjective Possessive. This sub-class expresses a relationship of *doing* rather than of *having*. Observe, in this next display, that the PD phrase in the right column names the person or thing that is the subject of, i.e. that performs, the verbal action named by the head noun in the left column.

naşterea	*celuilalt copil*	*ieşirea*	*unei pisici*
intrarea	*şefului*	*mersul încet*	*al timpului*
sfîrşitul	*primului act*[8]	*începutul*	*acestei luni*
plecarea imediată	*a avionului*	*moartea*	*tatălui soţiei lui Sandu*[9]
trecerea	*fiecărei clipe*	*venitul*	*altor persoane*

Note that the head noun is most frequently a verbal noun derived directly from the corresponding verb by suffixation of /-re/, that the underlying verb is intransitive (i.e. incapable of taking a direct object) and often denotes some aspect of motion.[10]

Our second model for producing PD phrases as modifiers is the following type of transformation of the subject-and-verb (doer-and-action) relation.[7]

trece timpul → *trecerea timpului* (time passes → the passing of time)
pleacă imediat ceilalţi studenţi → *pleacarea imediată a celorlalţi studenţi*
moare preşedintele republicii → *moartea preşedintului republicii*
începe un an nou → *începutul unui an nou*

EXERCISE 2. Fill the blanks on the right, adding /-re/ to the verb to form the head noun or, if the verb is starred, using the noun associated with it in the vocabulary.

cade neaşteptat guvernul → căderea neaşteptată a guvernului
**vine Ion* → venitul lui Ion
întreabă cei bătrîni → ______
**răspunde cealaltă fată* → ______
se întorc bărbaţii → ______
**roagă o altă doamnă* → ______
se opreşte trenul → ______
scapă toţi cîinii → ______
continuă serviciul → ______
porneşte repede maşina → ______
se apropie seara → ______
hotărăsc ce doi medici → ______
sosesc domnii şi doamnele → ______
creşte numărul de străzi → ______
tac cîţiva dintre ei → ______
naşte un al doilea fiu → ______
**începe iarna* → ______

2.3 Objective Possessive. This sub-class expresses a relationship of *being done to* as contrasted with *doing*. Observe, in this next display, that the PD phrase in the right column names the person or thing that is the *object* of the verbal action named by the head noun in the left column.

alegerea	*preşedintelui republicii*
trimiterea	*unor daruri*
citirea	*acestor cărţi*
chemarea imediată	*a medicului*

Note that here also the head noun is most frequently a verbal noun and that the underlying verb is transitive, in contrast to intransitives in the subjective possessive.

Our third model for producing PD phrases as modifiers is the following type of transformation of the verb-and-object relation. Since the subject of the verbal action is indefinite and unspecified, therefore the verb is either third-plural or third-singular accompanied by a "reflexive" *se* which cannot figure in the output.

se pune mase → *punerea mesei*
one sets the table → the setting of the table

îl aleg pe Andrei → *alegerea lui Andrei*
they elect Andrei → { Andrei's election / the election of Andrei

se închid toate muzeele → *închiderea tuturor muzeelor*
all the museums are closing → the closing of all the museums

EXERCISE 3. Fill the blanks on the right, adding /-re/ to the verb to form the head noun.

arată camerele → arătarea camerelor
primesc imediat maşina nouă → ____________
iau avionul → ____________
caută un bărbat → ____________
formează nişte idei → ____________
se schimbă o mie de lei → ____________
se închide această stradă → ____________
pierd multe prilejuri → ____________
îl cheamă pe Ştefan → ____________
se deschid toate bisericile → ____________
scriu multe cărţi → ____________
o iartă pe Magda → ____________
produc multe articole → ____________
trimit bagajul înainte → ____________
îi aleg pe cei doi domni → ____________

3.0 PD Phrases as Objects of Prepositions. The majority of Romanian prepositions have plain NP's as objects: *la teatru, cu trenul, peste tot, despre România,* etc. This majority includes all the monosyllabic prepositions and all but one of the disyllabic prepositions of the language (*de, pe, în...; fără, pentru, către...*). There are a few, however, that have instead PD phrases as their objects, as for example in *asupra României* 'concerning Romania', or *înaintea ochilor mei* 'before my eyes'. The reason for this has merely to do with the history of these words, among the most common of which are:

asupra	concerning, about	*împotriva*	against
contra	against	*împrejurul*	around
dealungul	along	*înaintea*	before, in front of
deasupra	above	*înăuntrul*	inside of

There also exist in Romanian numerous expressions made up of a short preposition plus a noun, e.g. *în faţă, în jur, în spate, în urmă,* which when alone function like adverbs but which, when the DA is added, function like prepositions and are followed by a PD phrase, e.g. *din partea familiei* 'on behalf of the family'. There follows a partial list of these "compound prepositions". Note that some of their English equivalents are similarly put together, while ending in an *of* which typically equates with the Romanian PD suffix.

din cauza	because of	*în jurul*	around
din partea	on behalf of	*în spatele*	behind, in back of
în ciuda	despite, in spite of	*în timpul*	during
în faţă	across from, opposite	*în urma*	as a result of

EXERCISE 4. Combine the simple or compound prepositions at the left with the NP's at the right, turning the latter into PD phrases and thus producing preposition-plus-object constructions.

asupra / ultimul război → asupra ultimului război
în ciuda / vremea rea → în ciuda vremii rele
înaintea / porţile → __________
din cauza / vîrsta mea → __________
imprejurul / centrul → __________
în urma / o ploaie grozavă → __________
înăuntrul / grădina → __________
deasupra / toţi arborii → __________
contra / acele mijloace → __________
din partea / întreaga familie → __________
în spatele / Domnul Dima → __________
dealungul / acelaşi rîu → __________
în faţa / biserica cealaltă → __________
în jurul / şcoala noastră → __________
în timpul / iarna → __________

4.0 PD Phrases as Dative Complements. The term "dative complement" is essentially equivalent to "indirect object". is that constituent of a verb phrase (VP) which designates, in contrast to the direct object of an action (*send money; give regards; kiss Mary,* etc.), the person affected, either beneficially or adversely, by an action which either may or may not contain its own direct object (*send John money; it seems so to everyone*, etc.). In English a dative complement is often preceded by one of the prepositions *to* or *for*, as in *Don't lie to George* or *Buy something for the children*. But it may also be a plain unmarked NP, as in *Don't tell George* or *Buy the children something*, and in this case it can be identified only by its position as the *first* of two object NP's or by the semantic content of the verbal expression (e.g. *Ask the boys* as against *Find the boys*, or the like).

In Romanian the function of dative complement (= indirect object) is always filled by a PD phrase, and this PD phrase is normally duplicated by a pro-object accompanying the verb. If the PD phrase is singular, the cross-referring pro-object is /îi/; if the phrase is plural, the pro-object is /le/. Examine the following display of PD phrases as dative complements:

(a) *Cred că-i va părea foarte rău mamei.*
Ce i-ai spus lui Sandu?
Să le aducem ceva copiilor.
I-am dat un tablou lui Rodica.
Oferă-i bani soţiei tale.
Nu-i trimite nimic lui Radu.
Ce vrei să-i ceri fratelui meu?
I-am vîndut casa noastră unui profesor.
Ce le-ai cumpărat celor mici?

(b) *Le-am dat doamnelor nişte cărţi foarte frumoase.*
Arată-i băiatului drumul cel mai bun.
Scrieţi-le fetelor imediat.
I-am făgăduit fiecărui copil un dar.
Le plac străinilor vinurile româneşti?

(c) *Studenţilor le-a spus foarte puţin.*
Părinţilor mei li se pare că da.
Şefului i-ar părea bine.
Cărei fete nu i-ar place aceea?
Celorlalţi nu le dau nici un leu.
Lui Andrei îi place maşina?"
Prietenului meu nu i-a plăcut oraşul ăsta de loc.
Domnului Pop i-am explicat întregul lucru.
Acelor copii le era foame.
Săracului cîine i-e sete.
Lui Ion i-e frig?
Celor doi tineri li-e frică.

(1) The three categories show three different positions for a PD complement: (a) final in the VP, (b) immediately after the verb, with some other complement following, (c) before the verb. In the normal stress-rhythm of a sentence, final position gives the PD phrase the most prominence; in other positions it is less high-lighted. Initial position is especially frequent before verbs like *a place, a părea, a lipsi,* or *a fi* plus a noun denoting a feeling (hunger, fear, etc.) where the experiencing of an action or state suggests the function of subject. Compare, for example, *Lui Ion îi place Sanda* with *Ion o iubeşte pe Sanda,* in both of which the roles of Ion and Sanda are essentially the same. Of course if the PD phrase starts with the interrogative Det /car-/, it has to stand first simply because all interrogative words, or constructions containing them, take that position in the sentence.

(2) The cross-referring singular pro-object /îi/ is reduced to *i*: (a) before the /a/-initial auxiliary of a perfective or conditional verb, to which it is hyphenated in writing,[12] e.g. *i-am dat, i-a spus, i-aş ruga, i-ar părea;* otherwise (b) after *nu, că* or *să*, with hyphenation, e.g. *nu-i am scris, că-i zice, să-i placă;* (c) after a verb in the imperative (singular or plural), with hyphenation, e.g. *arată-i, arătaţi-i;* (d) before *se*, e.g. *i se pare.* The corresponding plural /le/ is (a) hyphenated to a following /a/-initial auxiliary, e.g. *le-am dat, le-ar place* or to a preceding imperative, e.g. *arată-le, arătaţi-le;* (b) changed to *li* before *se*, e.g. *li se pare.*[12]

EXERCISE 5. Make sentences combining the elements separated by bars at the left. Keep them in the same order, adding the PD marker to the dative complements and duplicating them with the required pro-object next to the verb. Take any lone verb without an expressed subject as an imperative.

Trebuie să scriu / bărbatului meu → Trebuie să-i bărbatului meu
Am trimis / şeful / scrisorile acelea → ____________________
Studenţii / nu plac / cîntecele? → ____________________
Dă / un sfat / Ştefan → ____________________
Arătaţi / florile / doamnele astea → ____________________

Aş vrea să aleg / bărbatul meu / un ceas → ____________________
Nu citi / mai mult / copiii → ____________________
Săraca pisică / e frică de voi → ____________________
Serveşte / cafea / domnul profesor → ____________________
George / place foarte mult / culoarea → ____________________
Ceilalţi / pare foarte rău → ____________________
Cred că cumpăr / asta / soţia mea → ____________________
Aţi vîndut / cei tineri / cîteva bilete? → ____________________
Ion / e o sete grozavă → ____________________
Fratele meu / se pare că nu → ____________________
De ce nu ceri / profesorul / mai mult timp? → ____________________
Prietenii noştri / nu place de loc / casa lor → ____________________
Ce sfat / ai dat / fiul tău? → ____________________

Deletion of PD Complement. A PD complement, if understood from the preceding context already established in the sentence or discourse, may be omitted as contributing no new information. It is recoverable, however, from the cross-referring pro-object, which under no circumstances may be deleted also. In English this is done through use of the regular pronouns without stress, e.g. *Send John some money* can become *Send him some money*, provided the repetition of John would contribute nothing new. In Romanian the omitted PD complement remains identifiable only the the cross-referring pro-object; *trimite-i bani lui Ion* can become *Trimite-i bani; Nu le-am oferit nimic fetelor* ⟶ *Nu le-am oferit nimic*, etc.

5.0 In the foregoing analysis we have confined our examples of PD phrases to those composed of a NP containing a Det which carries the PD suffix. We are now ready to consider PD phrases consisting specifically of pronouns, which are a marginal kind of NP in the sense that they fulfil the same function in the grammatical structure of a language. Some pronouns are substitutes for specific NP's established by the previous context; thus English *he* is a substitute for any singular NP naming a male, whether *my brother* or *Charles the Fifth* or *that poor old soldier*. Other pronouns are not substitutes, for example English *someone, anything, nothing*. We will divide Romanian pronouns, for present purposes, into (5.1) personal and (5.2) nonpersonal.

5.1 The Personal Pronouns. These contain an in-built Det, but since that element has no overt shape it cannot receive the PD suffix in overt form either. What happens is that the personal pronouns signal the added presence of the PD marker by wholly changing their form. This is shown in the following chart.

Person	Unmarked Pronoun	PD Pronoun		Corresponding PD Pro-object
		As possessive modifier in NP As object of preposition	As dative complement in VP	
1st	*eu / mine*	*me-*	*mie*	*îmi*
	noi	*nostr-*	*nouă*	*ne*
2nd	*tu / tine*	*tă-*	*ţie*	*îţi*
	dumneata	*dumitale*		
	voi	*vostr-*	*vouă*	*vă*
	dumneavoastră	*dumneavoastră*		
3rd^{13}	*el*	*lui*		*îi*
	ea	*ei*		/ *îşi*
	ei	*lor*		*le*
	ele			

Chart I: Personal Pronouns

Let us now work with these personal pronouns in all the types of PD phrase studied in the foregoing sections.

5.11 As possessive modifiers, the first-person and the second-person familiar pronouns are precisely adjective-like in that they obligatorily show gender/number agreement with the head noun, as follows:

/me-/ → *meu, mei; mea, mele*
/tă-/ → *tău, tăi; ta, tale*
/nostr-/ → *nostru, noştri; noastră, noastre*
/vostr-/ → *vostru, voştri; voastră, voastre*

That they are indeed PD forms is proved by (a) their identical position in the larger NP (e.g. *casa omului* and *casa mea*) and (b) their identical requirements for insertion of the article /al-/; for example:

grijile mamei		*grijile tale (mele, noastre...*
marile griji ale mamei	and	*marile griji ale tale*
grijile mari ale mamei		*grijile mari ale tale*
(grijile sînt) ale mamei		*(grijile sînt) ale tale*

Using the models for Exercises 1-3, fill the blanks in the following exercises to produce possessive modifiers in the form of PD pronouns.

EXERCISE 6. Possessive Proper.

numele		*îl ai tu*	→ numele tău
doi prieteni		*îi are el*	→ ________
camera		*o am eu*	→ ________
cele mai bune gînduri		*le avem noi*	→ ________
artele frumoase		*le aveţi voi*	→ ________
motivele foarte bune	*pe care*	*le ai dumneata*	→ ________
un alt scop		*îl aveţi dumneavoastră*	→ ________
toate luptele		*le are el*	→ ________
inima		*o are ea*	→ ________
locurile		*le au ele*	→ ________
cultura		*o au ei*	→ ________

EXERCISE 7. Subjective Possessive.

plecăm noi → plecarea (noastră) ________
moare ea → ________
**veniţi dumneavoastră* → ________
**merge el* → ________
intri tu → ________
ieşi dumneata → ________
sfîrşesc ei → ________
sosesc ele → ________
**răspund eu* → ________
**rugaţi voi* → ________

EXERCISE 8. Objective Possessive.

te aleg pe dumneata → alegerea dumitale
îi cheamă pe ei → ________
mă caută pe mine → ________
o sărută pe ea → ________
vă prezintă pe voi → ________
le iartă pe ele → ________
vă primesc pe dumneavoastră → ________
te ridică pe tine → ________
ne apără pe noi → ________
îl spală pe el → ________

A PD pronoun is often the possessive modifier in a larger NP functioning as direct object, as in *Au pierdut bagajul nostru* or *Ion va continua studiile lui.* When in this situation the PD pronoun adds little or nothing new to the message and therefore needs to be de-emphasized, it may be replaced by the corresponding PD pro-object next to the verb, as in the following examples:

Au pierdut bagajul nostru → *Ne-au pierdut bagajul.*
S-a deschis magazinul lui → *I s-a deschis magazinul.*
Ion va continua studiile lui → *Ion îşi va continua studiile.*

The last example shows how, when the possessor named by the PD pronoun is third-person (sg. or pl.) and identical with the subject of the VP, the PD pro-object required is the reflexive /îşi/[14] rather than /îi/ or /le/ (see Chart I).[15]

The PD pro-objects /îmi, îţi, îi, îşi/ are shortened to *mi, ti, i, si* respectively under the same conditions as stated for /îi/ on p. 10 above, i.e. *mi-au (ţi-au, i-au, şi-au) rupt...; nu-mi (nu-ţi, nu-i, nu-şi) schimbă...; spală-mi (spală-ţi, spală-i)...; mi s-a (ţi s-a, i s-a) rupt...* The pro-objects /ne, vă, le/ become *ni, vi, li* respectively under the conditions stated above for /le/, with /vă/ shortened to *v-* before an /a/-initial auxiliary. For example: *ne-au (v-au, le-au) rupt...; spălaţi-ne (spălaţi-vă, spălaţi-le)...; ni s-a (vi s-a, li s-a) rupt...*

EXERCISE 9. Replace the possessive pronouns by corresponding PD pro-objects.

Ai spălat maşina ta? → Ţi-ai spălat maşina?
Nu uitaţi darurile voastre! → ____________
Am uitat numele ei. → ____________
Cînd o să luaţi biletele lor? → ____________
Cineva a lăsat bagajele lui aici. → ____________
Săracul copil a pierdut drumul lui. → ____________
S-a rupt ceasul meu. → ____________
Ei trebuie să schimbă banii lor. → ____________
De ce nu continuaţi studiile voastre? → ____________
Incept lucrul meu imediat. → ____________
Păstrati locurile noastre, vă rog. → ____________

5.12 After prepositions that require PD objects, the 1st-person and the 2nd-person familiar personal pronouns again have their adjectival forms. The agreement is necessarily singular, and the gender agrees with the final segment of the preposition: feminine if the preposition ends in /-a/, e.g. *împotriva mea* 'against me', *în faţa noastră* 'across from us', masculine if it ends otherwise, e.g. *împrejurul vostru* 'around you', *în spatele tău* 'behind you'.[16]

EXERCISE 10. As in Exercise 4, combine the prepositions with the pronouns:

contra / ea → contra ei
din partea / noi → ____________
în urma / ei → ____________
asupra / dumneata → ____________
înăuntrul / ea → ____________
dealungul / ele → ____________
deasupra / el → ____________
în ciuda / eu → ____________

împotriva / tu → ____________
în timpul / ea → ____________
înaintea / dumneavoastră → ____________
în jurul / eu → ____________
în spatele / dumneata → ____________
împrejurul / el → ____________
din cauza / ea → ____________
în faţa / voi → ____________

5.13 As dative complements, the 1st-person and the 2nd-person familiar personal pronouns take the invariable forms /mie, nouă, ţie, vouă/ as shown in Chart I and as illustrated herewith:

> *Mie nu-mi place cafeaua asta.*
> *V-au trimis dumneavoastră celelalte lucruri?*
> *Iţi pare bine ţie?*
> *Nu ţi-e foame nici dumitale?*

All the pro-objects are shortened or altered according to the same rules

EXERCISE 11. Make sentences combining the elements separated by bars at the left. Keep them in the same order, changing the form of the pronouns to function as dative complements and duplicating them with the required pro-object next to the verb. Take any lone verb without an expressed subject as an imperative.

Trebuie să scriu / şi ele → Trebuie să le scriu şi lor.
Am trimis / dumneavoastra / biletele → ______________________
Noi / nu plac / preţurile de azi → ______________________
Dă / un sfat / şi el → ______________________
As vrea să aleg / tu / un ceas → ______________________
Şi dumneata / e frică de asta? → ______________________
Serveşte / puţin vin / şi eu → ______________________
Aţi vîndut / şi ei / cîteva bilete? → ______________________
Şi voi / se pare că da? → ______________________
Ce / aţi făgăduit / ea? → ______________________
Ar părea foarte rău / şi noi → ______________________
Ce / vrei să cumpăr / eu? → ______________________
Nici tu / nu au dat / nimic? → ______________________

Deletion of Dative Pronoun. Like any PD complement, a dative pronoun may be omitted in contexts where its presence would contribute no new information. The omitted dative pronoun remains identifiable only by the cross-referring pro-object, which may never be omitted. Thus *Trimite-mi banii mie* can become *Trimite-mi banii, Dumneavoastră nu vă lipseşte nimic?* ⟶ *Nu vă lipseşte nimic?*

Replacement of Direct Object. We have said that a PD complement (NP or pronoun) may be omitted where this is justified by the context (e.g. *Spune-i tatei* or *Spune-i lui* may come down to just *Spune-i*). For similar reasons a direct object (either NP or pronoun) may be replaced by a direct pro-object of the series /mă, ne, te, vă, îl, o, îi, le/. So for example *Deschide uşile!* can become *Deschide-le!* or *Vrei să vezi oraşul? -- Vrei să-l vezi?* Whenever this sort of replacement occurs in a VP which already contains a PD complement, the result is the *co*-occurence of two pro-objects with one and the same verb. There follows here a chart of the most frequent combinations produced by such co-occurence.

		PD pro-objects				
		îmi	*ne*	*îţi*	*va*	*îi*
Direct pro-objects	*îl*	*mi-l*	*ni-l*	*ţi-l*	*vi-l*	*i-l*
	o	*mi-o*	*ni-o*	*ţi-o*	*v-o*	*i-o*
	îi	*mi-i*	*ni-i*	*ţi-i*	*vi-i*	*i-i*
	le	*mi le*	*ni le*	*ţi le*	*vi le*	*i le*

Chart II: Two pro-objects together

Remarks to Chart II:

(a) Of the two 3rd-person PD pro-objects, only the singular /îi/ can co-occur with a direct pro-object. In the presence of the latter, the plural /le/ is not compatible with a direct pro-object, in the presence of which it simply disappears. So for example *Daţi-le banii prietenilor mei* → *Daţi-i prietenilor mei; Le-am arătat lor tabloul* -- *L-arătat lor,* but *Le-am aratat lor scrisoarea* → *Le-am arătat-o.*[17]

(b) First- and second-person direct objects are not included here, as it is rather rare for them to co-occur with a PD complement.

(c) After an imperative there is always double hyphenation in writing, e.g. *Daţi-mi-le.*

(d) Before an /a/-initial auxiliary the hyphen is moved to the right, e.g. *Mi l-au dat.*

(e) With a perfective or conditional verb, the direct pro-object /o/ always follows the participle or infinitive and the two pro-objects are thus separated by the verb, e.g. *mi-au trimis-o, mi-ar trimite-o.*

EXERCISE 12. Fill the blanks by reducing the direct objects to the corresponding pro-objects. (Note that the PD complement is already omitted, leaving only the PD pro-object.)

Nu ne-au luat biletele → Nu ni le-au luat
Arată-i drumul → ____________________
Să vă servesc cafeaua? → ____________________
Aduceţi-mi vinul acela → ____________________
Cred că-ţi pregătesc masa → ____________________
Să-i dau banii? → ____________________
Vă rog să-mi trimiteţi cartea → ____________________
Cîntă-ne cîntecul tău → ____________________
Cînd v-au dat florile astea? → ____________________
De ce îi arăţi grădina? → ____________________
Imi dai tu celelalte lucruri? → ____________________
I-ar arăta bisericile vechi → ____________________
Vrei să ne păstrezi camera? → ____________________
Nu pot să vă dau banii astăzi → ____________________
Să-ţi citesc scrisorile acum? → ____________________

5.2 The Non-Personal Pronouns. In the present analysis there are only three of these to consider, because the so-called "demonstrative" and "indefinite" pronouns are all seen as simply determiners and quantifiers in NP's with the head noun omitted. All are characterized by the suffix /-a/ which they take when the noun is omitted. Thus the first two determiners /acest-/ and /acel-/ add /-a/ whether or not the PD suffix is present,[18] e.g.:

$$\left.\begin{array}{l}\textit{acest om}\\ \textit{omul acesta}\end{array}\right\}\rightarrow \textit{acesta} \qquad \left.\begin{array}{l}\textit{acestui om}\\ \textit{omului acestuia}\end{array}\right\}\rightarrow \textit{acestuia}$$

whereas the quantifiers /un-(vreun-, nici un-), alt-/ and /car-(fiecare-, oricar-)/ and the pre-determiners /tot-/ and /amîndo-/ add /-a/ only if the marker is also present, e.g.

unor autori → *unora*
fiecărui student → *fiecăruia*
căror persoane → *cărora*
amînduror părinţilor → *amîndurora*
altor autori → *altora*
oricărei mame → *oricăreia*
tuturor oamenilor → *tuturora*

As "pure" pronouns -- in the sense that no specific noun can be considered omitted after them -- we are left with only the negative /nimeni/ 'no one, nobody', the interrogative /cine/ 'who' and the relative /car-/ 'who, which, that'.

5.21 The negative /nimeni/ is masculine. Without PD its form is like the plural, but it becomes singular on adding the PD suffix: *nimănui*. It has all the functions of a PD construction: *o problemă a nimănui, în spatele nimănui, Asta nu-i place nimănui.*

5.22 The interrogative /cine/, as well as its indefinite derivatives /cineva/ 'someone' and /altcineva/ 'someone else', is likewise masculine and changes to /cu-/ on taking the PD suffix: *cui, cuiva, altcuiva.* Observe the following examples, in which the interrogative stands first because all interrogatives do, while the indefinites take normal position:

ale cui flori?	*florile altcuiva*
Ale cui sînt florile?	*Florile sînt ale cuiva.*
Inaintea cui?	*înaintea cuiva*
Cui i-ai dat florile?	*I-am dat florile altcuiva.*

5.23 The relative /car-/, the same in form as the interrogative Det /car-/, varies to agree in gender/number with the noun it cross-refers to (i.e., its antecedent) whenever it adds the PD marker. As possessive modifier it precedes its noun, like English *whose*. Observe:

$$\left.\begin{matrix}\textit{băiatul}\\ \textit{fata}\\ \textit{copiii}\end{matrix}\right\} \;\textit{al}\; \left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{cărui}\\ \textit{cărei}\\ \textit{căror}\end{matrix}\right\} \;\textit{tată (a sosit)}$$

$$\left.\begin{matrix}\textit{băiatul}\\ \textit{fata}\\ \textit{copiii}\end{matrix}\right\} \;\textit{a}\; \left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{cărui}\\ \textit{cărei}\\ \textit{căror}\end{matrix}\right\} \;\textit{mamă (a sosit)}$$

$$\left.\begin{matrix}\textit{băiatul}\\ \textit{fata}\\ \textit{copiii}\end{matrix}\right\} \;\textit{ai}\; \left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{cărui}\\ \textit{cărei}\\ \textit{căror}\end{matrix}\right\} \;\textit{părinţi (au sosit)}$$

Note that while /car-/ agrees with its antecedent -- which is the head noun of the larger phrase -- the article /al-/ agrees with the head noun of the PD modifier.

EXERCISE 13. Combine the phrases to the left and right of the bar to produce single NP's containing a relative possessive modifier. The verb will always stand last.

băiatul / tatăl băiatului vine → băiatul al cărui tata vine
studenţii / aşteptăm ieşirea studenţilor → ______
regele / moartea regelui s-a ştiut → ______
bătrînii / ştim vîrsta bătrînilor → ______
un artist / operele artistului sînt cunoscute → ______
o prietenă / am uitat numărul prietenei → ______
persoanele / aţi întrebat numele persoanelor → ______
domnul / fiii domnului sînt la şcoală → ______
doamna / s-au pierdut banii doamnei → ______
unii autori / trebuie să citiţi cărţile autorilor → ______

The relative necessarily follows a preposition, as does English *whom, which,* and adds /-a/. Observe:

$$\left.\begin{matrix}\textit{oraşul}\\ \textit{oraşele}\end{matrix}\right\}\ \textit{în jurul}\ \left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{căruia}\\ \textit{cărora}\end{matrix}\right\}\ \textit{(mergem)}\qquad \text{the}\ \left\{\begin{matrix}\text{city}\\ \text{cities}\end{matrix}\right\}\ \text{around which (we go)}$$

EXERCISE 14. Combine the elements to the left and right of the bar to produce single NP's. Again the verb will come last.

artele / vorbim asupra artelor → artele asupra cărora vorbim
o biserică / aşteptam în spatele bisericii → ______
guvernul / au vorbit împotriva guvernului → ______
probleme-e / am lucrat în cuida problemelor → ______
aceia / am plecat din cauza acelora → ______
rîul acela / şoseaua trecea dealungul rîului → ______
lucrurile / asta s-a întîmplat în urma lucrurilor → ______

As dative complement the relative also adds /-a/. Observe.

$$\textit{doamna căreia i-am scris}\qquad \text{the lady}\ \left\{\begin{matrix}\text{whom I wrote to}\\ \text{to whom I wrote}\end{matrix}\right\}$$

persoanelor cărora trebuie să le spuneţi the people (whom) you must tell

EXERCISE 15. Combine the elements to the left and right of the bar to produce single NP's. Again the verb will stand last.

fata / i-am spus fetei → fata căreia i-am spus
omul / trebuie să-i dau omului banii → ______
şeful / i-ai cerut mai mult timp şefului → ______
doamna / doamnei îi este frică de medici → ______
unor copii / copiilor nu le plac studiile lor → ______
studenţii / studenţilor le place limba → ______
băiatul / băiatului i-e foame → ______

PASSAGE FOR ANALYSIS[19]

In the following passage (a) all PD suffixes (including those of mere agreement on feminine singulars and on all adjectives), (b) all occurances of the determiner /al-/ before a PD modifier, and (c) all instances of a PD pro-object duplicating a PD complement, are replaced with blanks. Words in brackets are omitted as understood, being signaled by a cross-referring pro-object. Fill each blank with the proper form, as is already done in the first three lines. Draw up a list of all PD phrases and classify them. Note all instances of /al-/ together with the environment requiring its insertion. After supplying the missing elements, translate the text into English.

După năvala zăpezilor, după asalturile viscolului, la Bucureşti a răzbit primăvara. Soare, cer senin, flori, tineret pe străzi, pulsul oraşului s-a accelerat... S-a deschis la Bucureşti Conferinţa naţională a studenţilor, care şi-a desfăşurat lucrările [ei] între 23-24 martie, în Palatul Mari___ Adunăr___ Naţional___. Delegaţiile Asociatiil___ de studenţi din cele 19 centre universitare au luat loc în incinta rotundă de pe Dealul Mitropolie___... Tineretul a ocupat incinta unde se iau deciziile cele mai însemnate pentru bunul mers ___ ţari___... E normal ca tineretul să fi fost invitat în această incintă ___ democraţie___ şi responsabilităţi___ care este clădirea unu___ parlament... La deschiderea lucrăril___ cele___ de-a IX-a Conferinţ___ ___ studenţil___ au luat parte ministrul învăţămîntulu___ şi ministrul tineretulu___, conducători ___ ţări___, în frunte cu preşedintele Consiliulu___ de Stat,

De ce investim atîta interes şi atîta încredere în tineretul nostr___? De ce ne preocupă atît de intens instrucţia şi educaţia aceste___ categori___ prin care familie şi societate...se interferează? De ce atîta insistenţă pe chestiunea formări___ tineretulu___? De curînd, un ziarist occidental care ___-a vizitat ţara [noastră], călător de altfel constant pe meleagurile noastr___, ___ spunea [mie]: "Voi românii, v-aţi impus atenţie___ general___ prin planurile ambiţioase de a reduce decalajul care vă

desparte de ţările dezvoltate... Sincer să fiu, am văzut, în decursul anil___, roadele acest___ eforturi... Insă vreţi ca o dată cu transformările din sfera economie___ şi tehnici___ să creaţi şi un nou tip de om, ca să zic aşa un prototip ___ socialismulu___. Nu ___ se pare [vouă] că aici sînteţi prea ambiţioşi? De ce are nevoie un oţelar sau un zidar de precepte morale pentru a-___ face meseria [lui], a-___ cîştiga existenţa [lui]?"

Desigur, în viziunea acestu___ ziarist, cinstit fără îndoială, dar pradă uşoară ___ prejudecăţil___, ___ unu___ anume pragmatism comod, ideea modelări___ caracterel___, ___ ridicări___ la putere ___ valoril___ morale, pare de neînţeles... (Totuşi), dacă modelăm caracterele după chipul şi asemănarea idealulu___ nostr___, aceasta se datoreşte faptulu___ că cea mai de preţ cucerire ___ acest___ ani___ nostr___ este omul... Da, tineretul nostr___ nu ___ dă [nouă] nelinişti, avem un tineret cu un acut simţ ___ responsabilităţi___ profesional___ şi civic___...

Aceasta înseamnă -- pe primul plan ___ preocupăril___ -- asigurarea cel___ mai bune condiţii pentru desfăşurarea procesulu___ de învăţămînt, pentru continua modernizare ___ învăţămîntulu___, pentru punerea lu___ în pas cu cele mai noi cuceriri ___ ştiinţe___... Planurile de stat prevăd importante creşteri ___ cifrel___ de investiţie în domeniul instrucţie___ public___, inclusiv în domeniul instrucţie___ universitar___... Aceasta mai înseamnă cultivarea acel___ însuşiri care fac parte din codul societăţi___ noastr___: simţul precoce ___ responsabilităţi___ faţă de bunul mers ___ vieţi___ public___, deci însuşirea continuă ___ noutăţil___ din ştiinţă...

Aceste probleme au stat şi pe agenda de lucru ___ Conferinţe___ studenţil___ de la Bucureşti. Delegaţii asociaţiil___ ___-au exprimat deschis opiniile [lor] cu privire la organizarea timpulu___ liber... O dezbatere vie, în ritmul tinereţi___ dar şi o dezbatere matură, probă ___ faptulu___ că tineretul nostr___ universitar ___ înţelege bine răspunderile [lui], ___ aduce de pe acum aportul [lui] la împlinirea maril___ sarcini care ___ stau în faţă [noastră].

FOOTNOTES

1. Some grammars of Romanian identify both a "genitive" and a "dative" case; others speak of the genitive-dative case or, since it is a question of one and the same form, the "oblique case".

2. The technical reasons for this are given in F. B. Agard, "Surface Case in Romanian", paper read at The Twenty-Sixth Annual Kentucky Foreign Language Conference, University of Kentucky, April 28, 1973.

3. Note that English *of* may introduce a lone noun, as *in the price of wine* or *a liter of wine.* In the first example, the phrase *of wine* is possessive (wine "has" a certain price); in the Romanian equivalent, *preţul vinului, vin* can take PD because being generic in sense it is determined by the DA. But in the second example the phrase *of wine* is not possessive at all (wine does not "have" a liter) and the Romanian equivalent will be *un litru de vin,* where the question of attaching PD to the lone noun *vin* does not even arise.

4. See Pamphlet I

5. The names of the months are in fact proper nouns.

6. With a singular head, the IA /un-/ may be omitted before /alt-/ (*un alt motiv* → *alt motiv*), in which case PD /-i/ may be transferred to /alt-/ itself (*unui alt motiv* → *altui motiv*).

7. The subject of *a avea* is put last to keep the sentence stress.

8. In some lexical areas there is a kind of overlap between possessive proper and subjective possessive; for example, something can "have a beginning" (proper) or it can "begin" (subjective). Also lying across this border-line, seemingly, are cases like *operele autorului* 'the author's works', *cuvintele poetului* 'the poet's words', where someone not so much "has" as "has done (made, spoken, produced...)" something. A phrase like *scrisoarea şefului* 'the chief's letter' is indeed ambiguous as it stands; does he own it, or did he write it, or both?

9. This example shows that any PD phrase (like *tatălui soţiei lui Ion*) can contain another PD phrase (like *soţiei lui Ion,* which in turn contains another: *lui Ion*) as possessive modifier within it. The presence of the PD marker on the head noun does not prevent another PD phrase from following immediately, without insertion of /al-/. There is no theoretical limit to the number of these inclusions: compare English *John's wife's father's cousin's...job* or the like.

10. In the Vocabulary no derivatives with /-re/ are included. A verb which does not add this suffix in this situation, but uses a different derivative, is followed immediately by that derivative in the Vocabulary.

11. Here *Ii place maşina lui Andrei* might be ambiguous because, with *maşina* definitized, the sequence *maşina lui Andrei* could mean 'Andrei's car'. On the other hand, the order *Ii place lui Andrei maşina,* with a single word as subject at the end, is rather awkward and would probably be rejected in favor of *Maşina îi place lui Andrei?* or *Lui Andrei îi place maşina?*

12. Also, optionally, before *e: i-e frig* or *îi e frig; li-e cald* or *le e cald* but not before *este.*

13. The third-singular "reflexive" *să-* is rapidly becoming obsolete. The honorific third-person pronouns *dumnealui, dumneaei, dumnealor* are either unmarked or PD-marked, with no variation in form. The alternate *dînsul, dînsa, dînşii, dînsele* are not now used in PD phrases at all.

14. There is no reflexive-non reflexive contrast in the 1st and 2nd persons.

15. The direct object must not be one that names a definite person and thus requires duplication and the marker *pe*. In other words *Am văzut-o pe sora ta* cannot become *Ţi-am văzut-o pe sora.*

16. A tiny minority of prepositions require that the pronouns of the 1st and 2nd persons take their dative form rather than the expected possessive (adjective) form: thus *graţie vouă* 'thanks to you', *mulţumită ţie* 'thanks to you', *datorită nouă* 'due to us'.

17. See remark 5 below.

18. The demonstratives /acel-aşi/ 'the same' and /cel(ă)-lalt-/ 'the other' never add /-a/.

19. Adapted, in abridged form, from *Tribuna României,* Anul II, Nr. 11, 15 aprilie 1973.

VOCABULARY

This vocabulary lists only the nouns, adjectives and compound prepositions used in the examples and exercises. With one or two exceptions, all of these entries are included among the first 2000 items, by frequency, in Juilland et al. 1965. The accompanying glosses are intended merely as aids to recall, not as complete lexical equivalences. Verbs are entered in the third-person singular of the present tense, followed by the infinitive in parentheses when there is unpredictable alternation.

act	act
aduce	bring, take
alege	choose
an	year
apără	defend
apropie	approach
arată (a arata)	show
arbore	tree
artă	art
articol	article
artist	artist
asupra	about, concerning
aşteaptă	wait
autor	author
avion	airplane

bagaj	baggage
bani (pl)	money
băiat (băieţi)	boy(s)
bărbat	man, husband
bătrîn	old person
bilet	ticket
biserică	church
boală	illness
braţ	arm
bun	good

cade (a cădea)	fall
cafea	coffee
cameră	room
carte	book
casă	house
caută (a căuta)	seek
cauză	cause
(din cauza)	because of
caz	case
ceas	watch
centru	center
cere	ask for
cer	sky
cheamă	call
citeşte	read
cîine	dog
cîntă	sing
cîntec	song
clipă	moment
continuă	continue
contra	against
copil	child
crează	create
crede	believe
creşte	grow
culoare	color
cultură	culture
cumpără	buy
cunoaşte	know
cuvînt	word

dă	give
dar	gift
dealungul	along
deasupra	above
deschide	open
doamnă	lady
domn	gentleman
drept	right
drum	road, way

erou	hero

explica	explain
familie	family
fată (fete)	girl
faţă: în faţa	across from
făgăduieşte	promise
femeie	woman
fereastră	window
fiecare	each, every
fiu	son
floare	flower
foame	hunger
formează	form
frate	brother
frică	fear
frig	cold
frumos	beautiful
gînd	thought
grădină	garden
greşeală	mistake
grijă	care, worry
grozav	awful, terrible
guvern	government
hotărăşte	decide
ia (a lua)	take
iarnă	winter
iartă (a ierta)	forgive
idee	idea
iese (a ieşi)	to go out
imediat	immediate
inimă	heart
intră	enter
istorie	history
iubeşte	love
împotriva	against
împrejurul	around
înaintea	before
înalt	high, tall
înăuntrul	inside
începe	begin
început	beginning
încet	slow
întîmplă	happen
întoarce	return
întreabă	ask
întreg	whole
jur: în jurul	around
lasă (a lăsa)	leave
lege	law
limbă	language
lipseşte	lack, be lacking
loc	place
(de loc)	at all
lucru	thing, work
lume	world, people
lună	month
luptă	struggle
magazin	store
mamă	mother
mare	big, large, great
masă (mese)	table, meal
maşină	car, machine
măsură	measure
medic	doctor
merge	go
mers	(act of) going
mei	thousand
mijloc	means
mînă (mîini)	hand
moare (a muri)	die
moarte	death
motiv	reason
munte	mountain
muzeu	museum
naşte	be born
neaşteptat	unexpected
nevoie	need
nimeni	no one, nobody
nimic	nothing
nou	new
număr	number
nume	name
ochi	eye
oferă (a oferi)	offer
om (oameni)	man
operă	work
opreste	stop
oraş	city
oră	hour
pace	peace

pare (a părea)	seem
parte	part
(din partea)	on behalf of
pas	step
părinte	parent
păstrează	keep
persoană	person
pierde	lose
pisică	cat
place (a plăcea)	please
pleacă	leave, depart
ploaie	rain
poartă	gate
poet	poet
popor	people
porneşte	start out
pregăteşte	prepare
preşedinte	president
preţ	price
prezintă (a prezenta)	present
prieten	friend
prilej	occasion
prim	first
primeşte	receive
problemă	problem
produce	produce
profesor	professor
pune	put, set
raspunde	answer, respond
răspuns	answer, response
rău	bad
război	war
rege	king
regiune	region
repede	fast, quick
republică	republic
ridică	raise
rîu	river
roagă (a ruga)	ask, beg
rugăminte	request
rupe	break
sărac	poor
sărută	kiss
scapă (a scăpa)	escape
schimbă	change
scop	purpose
scrie	write
scrisoare	letter
seară	evening
serveşte	serve
serviciu	service
sete	thirst
sfat	advice
sfîrşeşte	finish, end
sfîrşit	end
sînge	blood
soseşte	arrive
soţie	wife
spală (a spăla)	wash
spate: în spatele	behind
spune	say, tell
stat	state
stradă	street
străin	foreigner
student	student
studiu	study
şcoală	school
şef	chief
ştie (a şti)	know
tablou	picture
tace (a tăcea)	be quiet, say nothing
tată	father
teatru	theatre
timp	time
(în timpul)	during
tînăr	young person
treabă	task, job
trebuie (a trebui)	be necessary
trece	pass
tren	train
trimite	send
uită	forget
ultim	last
unit	united
uşă	door
vechi	old
vede	see
viaţă	life
vinde	sell

vine (a veni)	come
venit	(act of) coming
vin	vine
vis	dream
vîrstă	age
vorbeşte	speak,talk
vrea	want, wish
vreme	time, weather
zice	say, tell

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Academia Republicii Socialiste România, *Gramatica limbii române,* Vol. I Morfologia, Vol. II Sintaxa, Ediţia a II-a revăzută şi adăugită, Editura Academiei R.S.R., Bucureşti, 1966. The definitive, official modern grammar of standard Romanian, compiled by a team of Academy linguists headed by Academician Al. Graur. Based on literary usage and written on thoroughly traditional lines. Useful for reference only.

Agard, Frederick B., *Structural Sketch of Rumanian* [Language Monograph No. 26, Supplement to *Language* 34:3 (Part 2)], Linguistic Society of America, Baltimore, 1958. A phonological and morpho-syntactic study of modern Romanian based on the speech of educated native-speaking informants, supplemented with some contemporary textual materials. Employs the analytical and descriptive techniques of American structural linguistics, and is recommended only for students familiar with those techniques.

Augerot, J.E. and F.D. Popescu, *Modern Romanian,* University of Washington Press, Seattle, 1971. A thoroughly up-to-date audio-lingual course, the product of an attempt to apply current methods of language teaching to advanced university students. Pronunciation, dialogues, grammar notes, transformations and other drills. Second portion shifts emphasis to reading acquisition and provides many well-selected passages with notes and exercises.

Bantaş, Andrei, *Dicţionar de buzunar englez-român* and *Dicţionar de buzunar român-englez,* Editura Ştiinţifică, Bucureşti, 1969. These two bilingual dictionaries, bound in a single volume far larger than pocket size, are probably the most useful and reliable currently available.

Cazacu, Boris, et al., *A Course in Contemporary Romanian,* Editura Didactică şi Pedagogică, Bucureşti, 1969. The result of experience in teaching Romanian to foreign students at the University of Bucharest Summer Courses at Sinaia, this book is an attractively arranged and very thorough pedagogical presentation of the Academy *Gramatica*, enriched with phonological description, with dialogues for audio-lingual work, and with numerous exercises.

Guillermou, Alain, *Manuel de langue roumaine,* Librairie C. Klincksieck, Paris, 1953. Phonetic introduction, morpho-syntactic description (without exercises), and fourteen annotated texts of from one to two pages each. The annotations are very thorough, and this probably constitutes the most valuable section of the book, especially for an intermediate student.

Juilland, Alphonse, et al., *Frequency Dictionary of Rumanian Words*, Mouton & Co., The Hague, 1965. A tabulation by usage, frequency and dispersion of the 5000 most common lexical items of Romanian as extracted from a representative sample of more than 20,000 sentences totaling about 50,000 words.

Nandriş, Octave, *Colloquial Rumanian,* Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner & Co., London, 1961. A conventional introduction to Romanian phonology and grammar. Despite its title, not a good guide to current spoken usage. Has reading selections, but no useful exercises.

ROMANIAN GRAMMAR PAMPHLETS

James E. Augerot, Editor

VI. PRONUME ŞI FORME ENCLITICE

by

Anca Belchiţă Hartular

This work was developed pursuant to a contract between
the U.S. Office of Education and the Center for Applied Linguistics

(OEC-0-72-1588)

1973

PREFACE

These Romanian grammar pamphlets grew out of meetings held at the American Council of Learned Societies for the development of materials for Eastern European languages and subsequent funding by the U.S. Office of Education through the Center for Applied Linguistics. Priorities for language materials were established by polling most of those concerned with the teaching of Romanian in the United States. It was decided that, among other things, a series of grammar pamphlets, each treating specific problems and providing exercises, was the best way of attacking the shortage of materials for students beyond the first-year manuals. The pamphlets were thought useful because of the flexibility they would offer to a field in which teaching philosophies differed greatly from institution to institution and student needs beyond the first year course are also very disparate. The teacher of Romanian will have the opportunity to tailor his course to his students' needs using any number of the pamphlets in whatever order he determines to be most fruitful. Each pamphlet is basically independent of all the others, although there is some cross reference and the series has been arranged in an order suggesting the best use, all other things being equal. I would suggest that the teacher might find the first 3 pamphlets useful even before the first year of Romanian is completed. The remainder could very well serve as companion units to a second-year course that concentrates on readings and a refinement of the students' appreciation of finer points of Romanian grammar and expression. Eventually we hope to see more materials for advanced courses including a social science reader, more grammar pamphlets and a reference grammar, as well as a good dictionary.

Each pamphlet contains exercises appropriate to the materials and a brief bibliography for the enterprising student who wants to begin to make a serious study of the language.

The Editor takes full responsibility for the arrangement and the typography of the series. The particular theoretical approach and content of

each pamphlet varies considerably, however, and the individual authors remain responsible in these areas. We felt that this was not in any way detrimental in relation to the goals of the series. We included two of the pamphlets in the original Romanian. We realize that these will be somewhat difficult for the less advanced student, but he must begin to make the transition some time and these will help him to that end.

I thank Ms. Dorothy Rapp of the Center for Applied Linguistics for her always pleasant logistical assistance and to Ms. Kathleen Murphy, the project Secretary and in fact, although not in title, Assistant Editor, I owe a great deal. Professor Mircea Borcilă of the University of Cluj has been a constant and delightful consultant for things Romanian.

The titles and authors of the ten pamphlets in the recommended order are as follows:

I. SOME ROMANIAN DETERMINERS by Frederick B. Agard
II. ROMANIAN INTONATION AND STRESS by Robert L. Rankin
III. THE CONJUGATION OF THE ROMANIAN VERB by James E. Augerot
IV. PREPOSITIONS by Cornel Capuşan
V. POSSESSIVE AND DATIVE CONSTRUCTIONS IN ROMANIAN by Frederick B. Agard
VI. PRONUME ŞI FORME ENCLITICE by Anca Belchiţă Hartular
VII. PATTERNS OF SYNTAX IN ROMANIAN by Robert L. Rankin
VIII. NOUN CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN by James Algeo
IX. ADVERB CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN by James Algeo
X. STRUCTURA ETIMOLOGICĂ A VOCABULARULUI ROMÂNESC by Theodor Hristea

James E. Augerot
Editor
University of Washington
May 15, 1973

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface..i

Table of Contents..iii

Synopsis...iv

1.0 Introducere..1

2.0 Pronumele personal...1

Exerciţii 1-2..8

3.0 Pronumele reflexiv...8

Exerciţiu 3..10

4.0 Pronumele de întărire..10

Exerciţiu 4..11

5.0 Pronumele posesiv..11

Exerciţii 5-7..13

6.0 Pronumele interogativ-relativ..14

Exerciţiu 8..15

7.0 Pronumele demonstrativ...16

Exerciţii 9-10...17

8.0 Pronumele nehotărît..17

Exerciţii 11-12..19

9.0 Pronumele negativ..19

Exerciţiu 13...19

10.0 Concluzii...20

Bibliografie...21

PRONOUNS AND ENCLITICS

SYNOPSIS

The present paper is concerned with some aspects of pronouns in contemporary Romanian. These aspects refer especially to the form of pronouns and to the employment of different inflectional forms, as well as to the contexts that require one or another form. We deal with each type of pronoun, and especially with those problems which are more difficult or which have special features. We do not study absolutely all types of pronouns because they are characterized by considerable diversity.

The personal pronoun possesses two forms: strong and weak. Because the latter are numerous and very frequent, we particularly focus on them. The various forms are determined by context. We point out certain interferences between the personal, reflexive and possessive pronouns: one type of pronoun shares some forms with another.

The inflection of the demonstrative, interrogative-relative, indefinite, and negative pronouns is similar to that of the noun and adjective. They do not change in terms of the person, hence their behavior is closer to the nominal inflection.

Each section of the paper is followed by exercises, for practice in the specific problems of each type of pronoun.

PRONUME ŞI FORME ENCLITICE

1.0 INTRODUCERE. Lucrarea de faţă are ca obiect de cercetare pronumele în limba română contemporană. Alături de formele accentuate, ne vom ocupa şi de cele neaccentuate, multe din ele apărînd enclitic şi ridicînd probleme speciale de folosire. Obiectul principal al studiului îl constituie aspectul formal al diferitelor categorii pronominale. Acolo unde apar însă determinări sintactice în folosirea unor forme în anumite contexte, ne vom opri şi asupra aspectelor de sintaxă.

Vom prezenta, pe rînd, diferite tipuri de pronume şi problemele legate de flexiunea lor, existînd puţine situaţii cînd, formal, ele s-ar putea grupa. Acolo unde apar trăsături comune în flexiunea unor pronume diferite, le vom trata împreună.

Categoriile gramaticale care caracterizează flexiunea pronominală, în ansamblu, sînt: persoana, genul, numărul şi cazul. Nu toate clasele de pronume au forme variabile, în raport cu fiecare categorie gramaticală. Vom arăta mai jos, pe rînd, categoriile gramaticale care determină flexiunea fiecărui tip de pronume.

2.0 PRONUMELE PERSONAL. Varietatea cea mai mare de forme flexionare, accentuate sau neaccentuate, o întîlnim în cazul pronumelui personal. Alături de pronumele posesiv, pronumele personal se caracterizează prin teme deosebite pentru fiecare persoană şi număr. De asemenea, probleme deosebite apar aici datorită numărului mare de forme neaccentuate, cu folosiri speciale. În cele ce urmează vom expune, pe rînd, formele flexionare accentuate, pentru fiecare persoană, apoi formele neaccentuate şi folosirea lor.

2.1 PRONUMELE PERSONAL. FORME ACCENTUATE. Deoarece persoana I şi a II-a prezintă forme variabile după număr şi caz, iar persoana a III-a după *gen*, număr şi caz, vom prezenta mai jos, în tabelele 1 şi 2, separat formele flexionare accentuate ale pronumelui de persoana I, a II-a şi, respectiv, a III-a. Pentru neutru se foloseşte la singular forma de masculin, iar la plural forma de feminin a pronumelui de persoana a III-a.

Tabelui 1

Pers.	I		II	
Nr./Caz.	Sg.	Pl.	Sg.	Pl.
N	*eu*	*noi*	*tu*	*voi*
G	—	—	—	—
D	*mie*	*nouă*	*ţie*	*vouă*
Ac.	*(pe) mine*	*(pe) noi*	*(pe) tine*	*(pe) voi*

Tabelul 2

Gen.	M		F	
Nr./Caz.	Sg.	Pl.	Sg.	Pl.
N	*el*	*ei*	*ea*	*ele*
G	*lui*	*lor*	*ei*	*lor*
D	*lui*	*lor*	*ei*	*lor*
Ac.	*(pe) el*	*(pe) ei*	*(pe) ea*	*(pe) ele*

În datele oferite de flexiunea pronumelor de persoana I şi II-a (tabelul 1) s-ar putea desprinde anumite regularităţi, în sensul existenţei unei baze comune persoanei şi numărului şi a unor formative variabile după caz, cu excepţia persoanei I singular, nominativ.

Baza: *m* - (pers. I. sg.), *n* - (pers. I. pl.), *t-/ţ* - (pers. a II-a sg.), *v* - (pers. a II-a pl.)

Flectivul: *-u* (nominativ sg.), *-oi* (nominativ pl.)
-ie (dativ sg.), *-ouă* (dativ pl.)
-ine (acuzativ sg.), *-oi* (acuzativ pl.)

Deoarece numărul formativelor este la fel de mare ca şi cel al formelor flexionare, iar formativele stabilite nu mai apar în cursul flexiunii nominale sau a altor pronume, această segmentare nu facilitează cu mult retinerea formelor pronominale din tabelul 1.

Pronumele personal de persoana I şi a II-a nu are forme speciale pentru genitiv. În locul lor apare pronumele posesiv.

Pentru pronumele personal de persoana a III-a o astfel de segmentare în formative -- bază şi flective face evidentă apropierea lui de flexiunea nominală articulată sau de flexiunea altor tipuri de pronume. Dăm în continuare formele care pot fi socotite "de bază" ale acestui pronume, formativele flexionare şi forma rezultată. Menţionăm însă că numai privite în perspectiva întregii flexiuni a limbii române formele de mai jos simplifică reţinerea datelor din tabelul 2 şi relevă caracterul lor sistematic.

N Ac.: /el + u/→*el* /el + i/→*ei* /e + 0/→*ea* /e + le/→*ele*
G D: /lu + i/→*lui* /l + or/→*lor* /e + i/→*ei* /l + or/→*lor*

Spre deosebire de persoana I şi a II-a, persoana a III-a are şi formă de genitiv. Remarcăm la persoana a III-a sincretismul formelor de nominativ-acuzativ şi genitiv-dativ, neîntîlnit decît accidental la persoana I şi a II-a.

2.2 PRONUMELE PERSONAL. FORME NEACCENTUATE. Formele neaccentuate ale pronumelui personal apar numai la dativ şi acuzativ. Vom enunţa mai jos formele neaccentuate, independente, proclitice şi enclitice, urmînd să arătăm apoi condiţiile fonetice, morfologice şi sintactice care determină folosirea uneia din ele.

		Pers. I	Pers. II	Pers. III	
				Masc.	Fem.
Sg.	D	*(î)mi*	*(î)ţi*	*(î)i*	*(î)i*
	A	*mă*	*te*	*(î)l*	*o*
Pl.	D	*ne, ni*	*vă, vi*	*le, li*	*le, li*
	A	*ne*	*vă*	*(î)i*	*le*

Remarcăm formele identice ale pronumelor personale de persoana a III-a, masculin şi feminin, la dativ. Pentru acuzativ apar forme diferite, după gen.

Sg.	D	*-mi-*	*-ţi-*	*-i-*	*-i-*
	A	*-m(ă)-*	*-te-*	*-l-*	*-o-*
Pl.	D	*-ne-, -ni-*	*-v(ă)-, -vi-*	*-le-, -li-*	*-le-, -li-*
	A	*-ne-*	*-v(ă)-*	*-i-*	*-le-*

(Între două linii am notat pronumele care apar în encliză sau procliză legate de verb.)

Sînt situaţii în care, într-o propoziţie apar două forme neaccentuate la cazuri diferite: întotdeauna pronumele în dativ îl precede pe cel în acuzativ.

Spre exemplu, se poate spune:

Mi-l arată mîine, în zori.
Mi-i arată mîine, în zori.
Mi-le arată la faţă.
I-o trimite imediat.

2.3 FOLOSIREA FORMELOR NEACCENTUATE INDEPENDENTE. Formele neaccentuate însoţesc în general un verb. Între formele care pot apărea independent, nelegat, şi verb, se pot intercala adverbe (*cam, mai, prea, şi, tot*) şi pronumele reflexiv *se*.

Îmi mai trebuie o carte.
Nu ne prea place filmul acesta.
Dimpotrivă, ne şi enervează.

Diferitele forme ale aceluiaşi pronume apar condiţionate fonetic:

(a) *îmi, îţi, îi, îl* pot apărea la începutul unei propoziţii ori după un cuvînt terminat în consoană, cu condiţia ca iniţiala cuvîntului următor să fie o consoană sau o vocală accentuată sau, în alte contexte, numai cînd cuvîntul următor începe cu o vocală neaccentuată. De exemplu:

Imi arátă cartea lui.
Unde merg îmi spun acelaşi lucru.
Il árde în suflet după ea.

(b) *mă, ne, te, vă, le* se folosesc dacă iniţiala cuvîntului următor este o consoană sau o vocală accentuată. Opţional, vocala poate fi şi neaccentuată:

Mîine vă duc la teatru.
Te află toată lumea.
Vă arată/v-arată unde să scrieţi.

(c) *o* apare nelegat, dacă după el urmează un cuvînt care începe cu o consoană sau cu o vocală diferită de *î*. Cînd cuvîntul începe cu *î*, pronumele apare opţional legat sau independent.

O vede pe stradă.
O arată mult mai tînără.
O învaţă/O-nvaţă multe lucruri utile.

(d) *mi*, *ţi*, *i*, *ni*, *vi*, *li*, se folosesc urmate de pronumele *se*, *te*, *le*, *s-*, *l-*, *i-*, *te-*, *le-*, respectînd şi restricţiile impuse de posibilităţile combinatorii ale persoanelor.

Mi se povestesc multe, dar nu vi le mai spun.
Vi l-a arătat şi vouă?

2.4 FOLOSIREA FORMELOR LEGATE. Pentru formele care nu apar independente se pot stabili următoarele condiţionări fonetice:

(a) Encliticele *-mi*, *-ţi*, *-i*, *-l*, *-o* se folosesc după o finală vocalică:

Nu credeam să-mi dea telefon.
Să-i spui că vin pe la el.

În cazul unui verb la perfectul compus sau condiţional, pronumele *-o* este mereu enclitic, spre deosebire de corespondentul lui masculin, care apare proclitic:

Am văzut-o ieri pe stradă.
dar: L-am văzut ieri pe stradă.
Aş face-o, dar nu pot.

(b) Un verb la gerunziu determinat de un pronume, selectează întotdeauna forme enclitice.

Văzîndu-ne s-a bucurat mult.
Întîlnindu-l pe stradă, i-am comunicat totul.

(c) Formele proclitice *mi-*, *m-*, *ţi-*, *i-*, *ne-*, *te-*, *v-*, *l-*, *le-* se folosesc atunci cînd verbul pe care îl preced începe cu o vocală neaccentuată sau este un auxiliar care începe cu o vocală. Ultimul context este obligatoriu, în timp ce primul este opţional.

Ţi-au explicat bine drumul?
L-aduce/îl aduce mîine pe la voi.
I-ascultă/îi ascultă la examen.

(d) Strict determinate morfologic sînt formele proclitice *mi-*, *ţi-*, *i-*, *ni-*, *vi-*, *li-*, care apar înaintea formelor neaccentuate ale verbului *a fi* la indicativ prezent, persoana a III-a singular şi plural. De asemenea ele preced pronumele *-l*, *-i*, în timp ce *-o* este precedat de *mi-*, *ţi*, *i-*, *ne-*, *v-*, *le-*.

Ţi-e dor de copii?
Dacă le place, le-o cumpăr.
Dacă ţi-s dragi cărţile, citeşte-le!
Vi-l aduce în curînd.

(e) Aceeaşi determinare morfologică apare şi în cazul formelor *-mi-*, *-ţi-*, *-i-*, *-ne-*, *-ni-*, *-vi-*, *-le-*, *-li-*, care apar precedate de un verb la gerunziu sau la imperativ pozitiv şi urmate de unul din pronumele *-se*, *-l*, *-i*, *-le*, *-o*.

Auzindu-i-le (cuvintele), m-am supărat.
S-a trezit dîndu-i-se atenţie.

(f) La fel, *-mi-*, *-mă-*, *-ne-*, *-ţi-*, *-te-*, *-i-*, *-l-*, *-o-*, *-ni-*, *-ne-*, *-vi-*, *-v-*, *-vă-*, *-le-*, *-li-* apar precedate de un verb la participiu sau infinitiv şi urmate de un verb auxiliar sau pronume, cînd verbul este la un timp compus (forma inversă).

Vedea-l-aş odată liniştit.
Chema-mă-va oare?

Formele de mai sus sînt totuşi rare, uneori cu nuanţă poetică sau arhaică.

(g) O determinare fonetică şi morfologică se întîlneşte în cazul lui *-o-*, care apare şi precedat de un pronume şi urmat de un verb cu *î-* elidat:

Le-o-ncepem noi, iar ei s-o termine.

2.5 ANTICIPAREA COMPLEMENTULUI PRIN FORMELE NEACCENTUATE. Am arătat la început că vom face şi referiri la unele aspecte sintactice, şi anume la cele legate de folosirea anumitor forme flexionare ale pronumelor personale. Formele neaccentuate de dativ şi acuzativ anticipează sau reiau, în anumite condiţii, complementul direct sau indirect. Ne oprim asupra acestei probleme deoarece construirea unei fraze *corecte* impune o bună cunoaştere a folosirii pronumelor personale neaccentuate în anumite contexte.

(a) Complementul direct aflat *înaintea* verbului şi exprimat prin substantiv articulat enclitic, substantiv nume de persoană articulat proclitic sau nearticulat, precedat de *pe*, nume propriu sau pronume, toate sînt reluate de un pronume, formă neaccentuată.

Pachetul l-am luat ieri, dar scrisoarea am uitat-o.
Pe vărul tău nu l-am văzut azi.

Pe aceia i-am vizitat, nu i-am vizitat însă pe ceilalţi.

Pentru o construcţie corectă este necesar să se ţină seama atent de *toate* condiţiile enunţate mai sus.

(b) Atunci cînd complementul direct sau indirect este exprimat printr-un pronume personal, posesiv, demonstrativ aflat *după* verb, el este anticipat obligatoriu prin pronume, formă neaccentuată.

L-au luat pe celălalt.
I-au dat cartea celuilalt.

În aceeaşi poziţie, cînd complementul este exprimat printr-un substantiv nume de persoană, articulat enclitic sau nearticulat construit cu prepoziţia *pe*, nume propriu sau pronume nehotărît, anticiparea lui este opţională. Tot opţională, dar foarte frecventă, este anticiparea complementului indirect, exprimat prin nume de persoană (articulat), pronume nehotărît şi negativ.

A dat cartea băiatului: I-a dat cartea băiatului.
Am văzut pe Ion: L-am văzut pe Ion.

Dacă sînt reluate mai multe complemente de acelaşi fel, pronumele formă neaccentuată va fi la plural.

Pe Ioana şi pe Ion i-am întîlnit ieri la teatru.

(c) O propoziţie completivă directă introdusă prin pronumele relative ***care, cît, oricît, oricare, oricine,*** şi care precedă regenta, este reluată de pronumele personal la acuzativ, forma neaccentuată.

Pe oricine întîlnea, îl întreba despre ea.
Oricui îi plăteşti, trebuie să-ţi plătească.

Dacă regenta precedă completiva directă, aceasta din urmă este anticipată, în cazul în care este introdusă printr-un pronume precedat de prepoziţia *pe*.

Îi întreba pe cei pe care îi întîlnea.

(d) Completiva indirectă, introdusă printr-un pronume în dativ, este reluată sau anticipată prin forma neaccentuată a unui pronume personal în dativ.

Îi răspundea cui îl întreba.

2.6 Pronumele personale folosite uneori pentru persoana a III-a, ***dînsul,*** *dînsa, dînşii, dînsele,* se încadrează în flexiunea nominală articulată.

Pe dînsul îl cunosc mai de mult.

2.7 PRONUMELE DE POLIŢETE. O particularitate a limbii române o constituie folosirea pronumelui de politeţe: *dumneata* (persoana a II-a singular), *dumnealui* (persoana a III-a singular, masculin), *dumneaei* (persoana a III-a, singular, feminin), *dumneavoastră* (persoana a II-a plural), *dumnealor* (persoana a III-a plural).

Forma *dumneavoastră* este folosită atît cu valoare de plural, cît şi pentru a marca un grad mai mare de politeţe.

Singura forma flexionara care apare este genitiv-dative *dumitale*, pentru pronumele *dumneata*.

EXERCIŢII 1. Indicaţi propoziţiile în care pronumele personal, formă neaccentuată, este folosit incorect, după un alt pronume. Motivaţi de ce.

a. Ţi-l aduc direct acasă.
b. Ţi-ne arată cu degetul.
c. El vi le dă cu toată inima.
d. A spus că vi-mă împrumută cu plăcere.
e. Nu cred că ni le prezintă pe toate.

EXERCIŢII 2. În frazele de mai jos folosiţi forma sau formele neaccentuate adecvate, ale pronumelui personal.

a. ____ spune că mîine nu vei veni.
b. ____ a văzut ieri pe stradă, cu tine.
c. Multe ____ se pot întîmpla acolo.
d. ____ l-a adus acasă şi nouă.
e. Văzîndu-____ pe voi s-a simţit tînăr.
f. Spune-____ şi nouă ce s-a întîmplat.
g. Dacă ____ cheamă, să vă duceţi!
h. ____ întoarce şi pe o parte şi pe alta.
i. Pe fetiţa cea blondă nu am văzut-____ de trei zile.
j. ____ au dat altcuiva jucăriile lor.

3.0 PRONUMELE REFLEXIV. Asa cum pronumele personal de persoana I şi a II-a folosesc pentru GD forme ale pronumelui posesiv, pronumele reflexiv de persoana I şi a II-a utilizează formele de dativ şi acuzativ ale pronumelor personale corespunzătoare. Rămîne deci, ca avînd forme speciale, persoana a III-a.

3.1 PRONUMELE REFLEXIV. FORME SPECIFICE. Spre deosebire de pronumele personal, pronumele reflexiv de persoana a III-a nu are forme speciale pentru gen şi număr. Deci în flexiunea pronumelui reflexiv, în general, pot fi urmărite categoriile gramaticale: număr, caz şi persoană. Categoria cazului este reprezentată numai de dativ şi acuzativ, folosite după cum verbul este intranzitiv sau, respectiv, tranzitiv.

Pentru persoana I şi a II-a, cum am mai spus, sînt folosite formele pronumelui personal la aceste două cazuri. Intrebuinţarea formelor neaccentuate se supune regulilor fonetice şi morfologice enunţate mai sus, sub 2.3 şi 2.4.

Pentru persoana a III-a, formele accentuate

D: *sie, sieşi*
Ac: *sine*

sînt mai puţin folosite decît formele neaccentuate.

Ca şi pronumele personal, pronumele reflexiv are forme neaccentuate, care pot apărea independent:

D: *(î)şi*
Ac: *se*

şi forme neaccentuate, legate de cuvîntul precedent sau/şi următor:

D: *-şi-*
Ac: *-se-, -s-*

3.2 FOLOSIREA FORMELOR NEACCENTUATE. Formele neaccentuate ale pronumelui reflexiv de persoana I şi a II-a urmează regulile pronumelor personale corespunzătoare.

Formele de persoana a III-a, independente, nelegate, *îşi, se,* sînt folosite în condiţiile fonetice expuse sub 2.3 a şi b.

Işi mîngîie barba.
Pisica se spăla liniştită, la soare.

Forma *şi* apare urmată de un alt pronume, avînd o comportare asemănătoare (nu identică însă) cu pronumele de sub 2.3.d.

Toate secretele ei şi le-a încredinţat ţie.

Formele care apar enclitic, proclitic sau intercalat urmează, în mare parte, regulile stabilite sub 2.4 pentru pronumele personale. Astfel, encliticele *-şi, -se* se folosesc în contextele expuse pentru pronumele personal sub 2.4 a şi b.

Nu-şi mai văzuse părinţii de un an.
L-am văzut adeseori ducîndu-se la concert.

Condiţiile fonetice şi morfologice de sub 2.4.c şi d se aplică formelor proclitice *şi-, s-, se-*.

Şi-a pus pălăria şi a plecat în grabă.
Iarna, se-ntunecă mai devreme.
S-aude destul de bine gălăgia din stradă.

EXERCIŢII 3. Formaţi cinci propoziţii în care să folosiţi pronumele reflexiv, forme neaccentuate, la toate persoanele.

4.0 PRONUMELE DE ÎNTĂRIRE. Pronumele de întărire, cu forme care variază după număr, persoană şi gen, în română contemporană, îndeosebi în cea vorbită, apare de multe ori la forma invariabilă *însuşi*, datorită faptului că el nu are o frecvenţă foarte mare în limbă şi adesea are o nuanţă adverbială.

4.1 FORMELE PRONUMELUI DE ÎNTĂRIRE. În formele pronumelui de întărire pot fi delimitate două elemente variabile: pronumele personal, formă veche, nefolosită astăzi, *însu*, şi formele neaccentuate ale pronumelui reflexiv la dativ.

Prima parte este variabilă după gen şi număr:

M. sg.	*însu-*	M. pl.	*înşi-*
F. sg.	*însă-*	F. pl.	*înse-*

iar a doua este variabilă după număr şi persoană: *-mi, -ţi, -şi, -ne, -vă, -şi*.

Persoana		Singular	Plural
I	M	*însumi*	*înşine*
	F	*însămi*	*însene*
II	M	*însuţi*	*înşivă*
	F	*însăţi*	*însevă*
III	M	*însuşi*	*înşişi*
	F	*însăşi*	*înseşi* *(însele)*

Avînd cel mai adesea o folosire adjectivală, acordul pronumelui de întărire în gen, număr şi persoană, se face cu substantivul sau pronumele determinat. Cazul nu este o categorie gramaticală care să caracterizeze pronumele de întărire.

EXERCIŢII 4. În propoziţiile de mai jos folosiţi pronumele de întărire la formele flexionare adecvate.

a. Fata ____ i-a spus pe unde să meargă.
b. Noi ____ am văzut-o venind.
c. Păcat că voi ____ nu v-aţi ocupat de această problemă.
d. Zice că el ____ s-a dus şi a vorbit.
e. Tu ____ trebuia să fi luat bilete.
f. L-am întîlnit pe ____ băiat, pe care l-ai învăţat tu.

5.0 PRONUMELE POSESIV. Ocupîndu-ne de pronumele personal am arătat că pentru formele de genitiv, la persoana I şi a II-a, sînt folosite pronumele posesiv. Vom vedea că persoana a III-a a pronumelui posesiv foloseşte o formă a pronumelui personal. În cele de mai jos ne vom ocupa de toate formele acestui pronume, care are specifică variaţia atît în raport cu trăsăturile gramaticale ale posesorului cît şi ale obiectului posedat. De asemenea el apare însoţit permanent (cînd este pronume, nu şi adjectiv) de articolul posesiv *al, a, ai, ale.*

5.1 Pronumele propriu-zis variază în raport cu următoarele categorii gramaticale:

a. numărul şi persoana posesorului
b. numărul şi genul obiectului posedat

Articolul care îl precedă variază după numărul şi genul obiectului posedat.

Încercăm să sistematizăm în tabelul 3 formele acestui pronume în raport cu trăsăturile de număr, gen şi persoană.

Tabelul 3

Pers/Nr.	I	II	III	Genul obiectului
un posesor-un obiect	*al meu*	*al tău*	*al său*	M N
	a mea	*a ta*	*a sa*	F
un posesor-mai multe obiecte	*ai mei*	*ai tăi*	*ai săi*	M
	ale mele	*ale tale*	*ale sale*	F N
mai mulţi posesori-un obiect	*al nostru*	*al vostru*	*al lor*	M N
	a noastră	*a voastră*	*a lor*	F
mai mulţi posesori-mai multe obiecte	*ai noştri*	*ai voştri*	*ai lor*	M
	ale noastre	*ale voastre*	*ale lor*	F N

Pentru formele referitoare la mai multe obiecte posedate, genitiv-dativul se exprimă prin varierea formei articolului.

> Le-am spus alor mei să vină.
> Curtea alor voştri e mare şi umbroasă.

După cum se vede, pentru persoana a III-a, atunci cînd pronumele se referă la mai mulţi posesori, formele sînt cele ale pronumelui personal.

Dacă pronumele are în vedere un posesor, opţional poate fi folosită forma de GD a pronumelui personal de persoana a III-a singular: (*al, a, ai, ale*) *lui* sau *ei*, după cum posesorul este la genul masculin sau feminin. Remarcăm aici acordul în gen nu numai cu obiectul, ci şi cu posesorul.

Fata spune că { această carte este a ei.
acest caiet este al ei.

Fratele meu spune că { această carte este a lui.
acest caiet este al lui.

5.2 Folosirea ca adjective a posesivelor are unele implicaţii formale:

(a) Dacă urmează după un substantiv articulat enclitic, în forma adjectivală nu mai apare articolul:

Băiatul tău e ascultător.
dar: Un frate al meu a plecat la mare.

(b) Dacă substantivul determinat este nearticulat şi desemnează un nume de rudenie, adjectivul posesiv apare enclitic, formînd uneori o unitate morfologică împreună cu substantivul. Grafic, cele două formative se scriu cu cratimă(-).

Maică-sa l-a răsfăţat de cînd era mic.
I-a spus maică-sii că nu vine.
dar: I-a spus nevesti-sii că nu vine.

EXERCIŢII 5. Folosiţi forma corectă a articolului care însoţeşte pronumele posesiv în propoziţiile de mai jos.

a. ____noştri au plecat ieri.
b. Cîinele meu latră toată ziua, ____ tău latră noaptea.
c. ____ noastre sînt mai interesante.
d. M-am dus să-i văd pe ____ voştri.
e. Zice că ____ sa este foarte frumoasă.
f. Spune-le ____ tăi să nu plece mîine.

EXERCIŢII 6. În propoziţiile următoare puneţi pronumele posesive la cele trei persoane, singular şi plural, potrivite.

a. Al ____ scrie foarte bine.
b. Am vorbit cu ai ____ şi au spus că rămîn.
c. Asta nu o pot arăta decît alor ____.
d. Cele din dreapta sînt ale ____.

EXERCIŢII 7. Care forme ale pronumelor sînt greşite mai jos; de ce? Corectaţi-le.

a. A mele îmi plac mai puţin.
b. Ale lor mi-au ocupat mult spaţiu.

c. L-am citit pe a lui ieri.
d. I-am vizitat şi pe al noştri.
e. L-am văzut şi pe al vostru.
f. Mîine vor veni a voastre.

6.0 PRONUMELE INTEROGATIV-RELATIV. Pronumele de care ne vom ocupa aici şi mai jos, sub 7 şi 8, se caracterizează printr-o flexiune specifică săracă, încadrîndu-se, de cele mai multe ori, în flexiunea numelui.

Au fost incluse în aceeaşi categorie două tipuri de pronume, funcţional diferite, datorită indentităţii lor formale: pronumele interogativ, înlocuitor al cuvintelor despre care se întreabă în propoziţia interogativă, şi pronumele relativ, cu rol conjuncţional în introducerea propoziţiilor relative şi cu funcţie sintactică în subordonată.

6.1 PRONUMELE INTEROGATIV-RELATIV *CARE*. Dintre cele patru pronume interogativ-relative: *care*, *cine*, *ce*, *cît*, numai primul are o flexiune mai bogată.

Dacă pentru forma de nominativ şi acuzativ *care* este invariabil, indiferent de gen şi număr, la genitiv şi dativ acest pronume are forme flexionare conforme regulilor de flexiune nominală articulată. Avînd funcţie *sintactică* în subordonată, pronumele relativ are genul şi numărul substantivului din regentă, pe care subordonata îl determină, şi cazul impus de verbul din subordonată.

Fata căreia i-am adus cărţile plecase de acolo.

La singular deci pronumele *care* variază în raport cu categoriile gramaticale gen şi caz, iar la plural numai în raport cu cazul:

GD sg. M N: *cărui(a)*   GD pl. M F N: *căror(a)*
F: *cărei(a)*

Forma de N Ac., după cum spuneam, este invariabilă: *care*.

Deosebirea formală între genitiv şi dativ este dată de prezenţa la genitiv a articolului *al*, *a*, *ai*, *ale*, care are ca urmare folosirea formei scurte: *cărui*, *cărei*, *căror*:

căruia *al(a, ai, ale) cărui*
căreia *al(a, ai, ale) cărei*
cărora *al(a, ai, ale) căror*.

Cele două posibilităţi de realizare nu sînt opţionale. Cea de a doua formă apare ori de cîte ori substantivul determinat de atributul exprimat prin pronume relativ apare *după pronume:*

Casa ale cărei coşuri erau astupate a luat foc.
Casa al cărei coş era astupat a luat foc.
Casa a cărei fereastră era astupată a luat foc.
dar: Am zărit o casă pe coşurile căreia se opreau păsările.

Forma de feminin singular a pronumelui se explică prin acordul cu substantivul *determinat de propoziţia* atributivă: casa: feminin, singular. Acordul cu substantivul *determinat de pronume* se face în gen şi număr, numai în prima situaţie prin modificarea formei articolului posesiv.

6.2 PRONUMELE *CÎT, CINE, CE.* O flexiune mai simplă o are pronumele *cît*, variabil după număr şi gen la singular şi cu o singură formă cazuală, de GD, şi anume la plural: *cîtor*. Formele de singular au comportamentul unui adjectiv de tip *bun: cît, cîtă, cîţi, cîte (t + i* flexionar > *ţi).*

Pronumele *cine* are forme numai de singular, variind în raport cu cazul:

N Ac.: *cine*
G: *al (a, ai, ale) cui*
D: *cui*

Dacă pronumele la cazul genitiv este folosit *după* substantivul determinat, articolul posesiv este suprimat.

Băiatul cui eşti tu?
dar: Al cui băiat eşti tu?

Pronumele *ce* este invariabil.

EXERCIŢII 8. Puneţi pronumele *care* la forma de GD adecvată, făcînd acordul:

- cu substantivul determinat de el
- cu substantivul determinat de propoziţia pe care o introduce.

a. Cîinele, ____ mîncare a mîncat-o pisica, lătra supărat.
b. Fata, ____ cărţi le-ai luat, s-a supărat.
c. Am văzut nişte băieţi ____ minge se spărsese.
d. Copacii ____ frunze au înverzit sînt mai tineri decît ceilalţi.
e. M-am întîlnit cu prietenul pe strada ____ am trecut ieri.
f. Îl voi vedea pe băiatul pe ____ stradă am fost ieri.
g. Am cules floarea ____ parfum îţi place.

h. Asta este cartea în recenzia ____ apare o greşeală.
i. Am chemat-o pe fata în casa ____ ai stat şi tu.
j. A trimis o scrisoare pe ____ plic nu a pus timbre.

7.0 PRONUMELE DEMONSTRATIV. O caracteristică a pronumelui demonstrativ o constituie multitudinea de forme variabile, atît după depărtarea în spaţiu sau timp, cît şi după raportul de identitate sau diferenţiere faţă de alte obiecte, la care se adaugă folosirea frecventă a formelor familiare alături de cele literare. Primele se întîlnesc mai ales în limba vorbită, ultimele în cea scrisă şi solemnă.

Pronumele demonstrativ de care ne ocupăm pot fi caracterizate în raport cu trăsăturile amintite, după cum urmează:

aceasta	*+ literar* *+ apropiat* *- diferenţiat*	*ăsta*	*- literar* *+ apropiat* *- diferenţiat*
acela	*+ literar* *- apropiat* *- diferenţiat*	*ăla*	*- literar* *- apropiat* *- diferenţiat*
cestălalt	*+ literar* *+ apropiat* *+ diferenţiat*	*celălalt*	*+ literar* *- apropiat* *+ diferenţiat*

Identitatea cu un alt obiect este exprimată de pronumele *acelaşi*, în care poate fi recunoscut demonstrativul *acela + şi*.

7.1 FORMELE PRONUMELUI DEMONSTRATIV. Flexiunea pronumelui demonstrativ ţine seama de categoriile gramaticale gen, număr şi caz. Formele cazuale sînt două: de nominativ-acuzativ şi de genitiv-dativ. La singular neutrul are acelaşi comportament ca masculinul, iar la plural ca femininul. Între flexiunea pronumelui demonstrativ şi cea nominală există multe coincidenţe, astfel că o cunoaştere a flexiunii nominale uşurează mult reţinerea formelor pronumelui demonstrativ, indicate mai jos, în tabelul 4.

Pronumele *cestălalt* nu este foarte uzual.

Pronumele *acelaşi* urmează flexiunea lui *acela*, la care se adaugă mereu, enclitic, *-şi*.

Tabelul 4

Nr.	Singular		Plural		
Caz	N Ac	G D	N Ac	G D	Gen
M N	*acesta*	*acestuia*	*aceştia*	*acestora*	M
F	*aceasta*	*acesteia*	*acestea*	*acestora*	F N
M N	*ăsta*	*ăstuia*	*ăştia*	*ăstora*	M
F	*asta*	*ăsteia*	*astea*	*ăstora*	F N
M N	*acela*	*aceluia*	*aceia*	*acelora*	M
F	*aceea*	*aceleia*	*acelea*	*acelora*	F N
M N	*ăla*	*ăluia*	*ăia*	*ălora*	M
F	*aia*	*ăleia*	*alea*	*ălora*	F N
M N	*cestălalt*	*cestuilalt*	*ceştilalţi*	*cestorlalţi*	M
F	*ceastălaltă*	*cesteilalte*	*cestelalte*	*cestorlalte*	F N
M N	*celălalt*	*celuilalt*	*ceilalţi*	*celorlalţi*	M
F	*cealaltă*	*celeilalte*	*celelalte*	*celorlalte*	F N

EXERCIŢII 9. Pronumele demonstrative de mai jos trebuie să se refere la obiecte *depărtate, nediferenţiate* şi să fie la forma *literară*. Arătaţi şi corectaţi formele acolo unde cerinţele de mai sus sînt încălcate.

a. I-am spus aceluia care era acolo, deci nu te-am anunţat şi pe tine.
b. I-a dat-o acesteia pe care a văzut-o prima.
c. Spune-le acelora care stau sus să nu mai aştepte.
d. Dă-i acestea din partea mea.
e. I-am arătat-o pe aceea căreia îi lipsea coperta.
f. Nu cred că ăsta i-ar fi plăcut.

EXERCIŢII 10. Înlocuiţi formele literare ale pronumelui demonstrativ cu forme familiare.

a. Îţi spun aceasta pentru că mi-e milă de el.
b. Acela de pe strada mea s-a deschis ieri.
c. Ce soi de plantă e aceasta?
d. Acelea de pe munte sînt mai verzi.
e. Acestea pe care le am eu sînt noi.
f. Le-am dat acelora care stăteau afară.

8.0 **PRONUMELE NEHOTĂRÎT.** În categoria pronumelui nehotărît intră un număr mare de pronume care nu dau o indicaţie sigură asupra numelui pe care îl înlocuiesc. Ele pot fi grupate după cum se referă la persoane, la lucruri sau şi la persoane şi la lucruri.

8.1 PRONUME NEHOTĂRÎTE CARE ÎNLOCUIESC PERSOANE. Formal, se poate recunoaşte in componenta acestor pronume un pronume relative-interogativ, urmat de particula enclitică *-va* sau precedat de procliticul *ori-: cineva, careva, altcineva, oricine.* De aceea, ele au flexiunea pronumelor relativ-interogative *cine* sau *care, -va* şi *ori-* fiind invariabile.

> Ştii pe careva specialist? (Îl ştii pe careva specialist?)
> I-am dat-o cuiva care e specialist.

8.2 PRONUME NEHOTĂRÎTE CARE ÎNLOCUIESC NUME DE LUCRURI. Corespunzînd pronumelui interogativ-relativ *ce*, folosit în special pentru lucruri, pronumele nehotărîte care înlocuiesc nume de lucruri sînt alcătuite, ca şi cele de sub 8.1, din acest interogativ-relativ, urmat de encliticul *-va: ceva, altceva.* Ele sînt de asemenea invariabile.

> Aş vrea astăzi să mănînc altceva.

8.3 În componenţa pronumelor *altceva* şi *altcineva*, în afara encliticului *-va*, poate fi delimitat la iniţială *alt-*. Este adjectivul pronominal corespunzător pronumelui nehotărît *altul*. Acesta face parte din categoria pronumelor care se referă atît la persoane cît şi la obiecte: *altul, unul, fiecare, oricare, orice, oricît, oarecare, cutare, atîta, vreunul, cîtva.*

(a) Dintre aceste pronume *fiecare, oricare, orice, oricît, cîtva* au flexiunea pronumelor relativ-interogative corespunzătoare. *Cutare* urmează aceleaşi reguli flexionare ca şi pronumele de mai sus: *cutare*~ *cutăruia* (M), *cutăreia* (F)~ *cutărora.*

(b) Pronumele *oarecare* este invariabil.

(c) Pronumele *atîta* are flexiunea asemănătoare cu cea a pronumelui *cît*, adăugîndu-se encliticul *-a:* (M) *atîta* (sg)~ *atîţia* (pl), (F) *atîtea* (sg)~ *atîtor* (pl).

(d) Pentru *unul, altul, vreunul* dăm în tabelul 5 flexiunea primului, celelalte urmînd aceleaşi reguli. Categoriile gramaticale în raport cu care se stabilesc formele flexionare sînt genul, numărul şi cazul.

Tabelul 5

Nr.	Singular		Plural		
Caz	N Ac	G D	N Ac	G D	Gen
M F	*unul*	*unuia*	*unii*	*unora*	M
N	*una*	*uneia*	*unele*	*unora*	F N

EXERCIŢII 11. Ţinînd seama de flexiunea pronumelui *unul*, formaţi tabelul flexiunii pronumelor *altul* şi *vreunul*.

EXERCIŢII 12. Puneţi pronumele din paranteză la forma flexionară corectă:

a. Eu nu pot spune asta (oricine).
b. A venit cu un (carecare).
c. Dă-o (oricine) ţi-o cere.
d. Niciodată nu o arăt (altul) decît ţie.
e. Întreabă-i pe (vreunul) cunoscători.

9.0 PRONUMELE NEGATIV. Puţine la număr, pronumele negative nu ridică nici o problemă specială. Flexiunea lor este simplă. Singurul element nou este pronumele *nimeni* sau *nimenea* (referitor la persoane), ale cărui forme, variabile in raport cu cazul, le vom da mai jos:

N Ac: *nimeni, nimenea*
G D: *nimănui, nimănuia*

Pronumele *nimic(a)* (referitor la lucruri) este invariabil, iar *nici unul* are flexiunea pronumelui nehotărît *unul*.

Remarcăm că folosirea pronumelui negativ cere, de asemenea, un verb la forma negativă.

EXERCIŢII 13. Puneţi pronumele negative la formele flexionare cerute de context.

a. Să nu spui asta (nimeni).
b. Băiatul nu a arătat cartea (nici unul) dintre colegi.
c. Nu vreau să aud (nimic).
d. Nu o voi împrumuta (nimeni).
e. Nu a venit (nici unul) dintre ele.

10.0 CONCLUZII. Marea varietate a pronumelor de care ne-am ocupat mai sus face dificilă stabilirea unor concluzii generale, referitoare la pronume, în totalitatea lui. Vom face cîteva observaţii desprinse în urma cercetării tuturor categoriilor de pronume din româna contemporană, observaţii în care încercăm să desprindem trăsături comune pentru două sau mai multe tipuri.

10.1 O atenţie specială am acordat pronumelui personal, datorită importanţei sale în limbă şi datorită unor aspecte mai dificile de utilizare a formelor neaccentuate, foarte frecvente. Această ultimă problemă a relevat interferenţa unor factori diferiţi în folosirea unor anumite forme. Este însă interesant de remarcat preponderenţa motivării *fonetice* a formelor enclitice şi existenţa motivării *morfologice* a formelor proclitice şi intermediare.

Studiul pronumelui personal, reflexiv şi posesiv evidenţiază existenţa "transfer" de forme, pronumele personal folosind pentru genitiv-dativ, la persoana I şi a II-a forme ale pronumelui posesiv, iar pronumele reflexiv utilizînd pentru aceleaşi persoane formele corespunzătoare ale pronumelui personal.

10.2 La celelalte pronume am remarcat adesea elemente comune în cursul flexiunii şi, mai mult, elemente comune cu flexiunea nominală sau adjectivală. Pronumele demonstrativ, relativ-interogativ, nehotărît, negativ, nu sînt caracterizate prin categoria gramaticală a persoanei. Faptul că flexiunea lor se realizează în raport cu genul, numărul şi cazul, le apropie de statutul flexionar al substantivului şi adjectivului.

BIBLIOBRAFIE

Asan, Finuţa. *Reluarea cumplementului în limba română.* Studii de gramatică, III, pp. 93-105.

Byck. *L'emploi affectif du pronom personnel en roumain.* Bulletin linguistique, V, 1937, pp. 15-32.

Graur, Al. *Notes sur l'emploi enclitique des adjectifs en roumain.* Bulletin linguistique, XIII, 1945, pp. 156-161.

Guţu, V. *Propoziţii relative.* Studii de gramatică, II, pp. 165-166.

Iliescu, M. *Concurenţa dintre pronumele relative care şi ce.* Studii de gramatică, II, pp. 25-35.

Niculescu, Al. şi Al. Roceric. *Pronumele dînsul în limba română.* Studii şi cercetări lingvistice, VIII, pp. 315-345.

ROMANIAN GRAMMAR PAMPHLETS

James E. Augerot, Editor

VII. PATTERNS OF SYNTAX IN ROMANIAN

by

Robert L. Rankin

This work was developed pursuant to a contract between the U.S. Office of Education and the Center for Applied Linguistics

(OEC-0-72-1588)

1973

PREFACE

These Romanian grammar pamphlets grew out of meetings held at the American Council of Learned Societies for the development of materials for Eastern European languages and subsequent funding by the U.S. Office of Education through the Center for Applied Linguistics. Priorities for language materials were established by polling most of those concerned with the teaching of Romanian in the United States. It was decided that, among other things, a series of grammar pamphlets, each treating specific problems and providing exercises, was the best way of attacking the shortage of materials for students beyond the first-year manuals. The pamphlets were thought useful because of the flexibility they would offer to a field in which teaching philosophies differed greatly from institution to institution and student needs beyond the first year course are also very disparate. The teacher of Romanian will have the opportunity to tailor his course to his students' needs using any number of the pamphlets in whatever order he determines to be most fruitful. Each pamphlet is basically independent of all the others, although there is some cross reference and the series has been arranged in an order suggesting the best use, all other things being equal. I would suggest that the teacher might find the first 3 pamphlets useful even before the first year of Romanian is completed. The remainder could very well serve as companion units to a second-year course that concentrates on readings and a refinement of the students' appreciation of finer points of Romanian grammar and expression. Eventually we hope to see more materials for advanced courses including a social science reader, more grammar pamphlets and a reference grammar, as well as a good dictionary.

Each pamphlet contains exercises appropriate to the materials and a brief bibliography for the enterprising student who wants to begin to make a serious study of the language.

The Editor takes full responsibility for the arrangement and the typography of the series. The particular theoretical approach and content of

each pamphlet varies considerably, however, and the individual authors remain responsible in these areas. We felt that this was not in any way detrimental in relation to the goals of the series. We included two of the pamphlets in the original Romanian. We realize that these will be somewhat difficult for the less advanced student, but he must begin to make the transition some time and these will help him to that end.

I thank Ms. Dorothy Rapp of the Center for Applied Linguistics for her always pleasant logistical assistance and to Ms. Kathleen Murphy, the project Secretary and in fact, although not in title, Assistant Editor, I owe a great deal. Professor Mircea Borcilă of the University of Cluj has been a constant and delightful consultant for things Romanian.

The titles and authors of the ten pamphlets in the recommended order are as follows:

I. SOME ROMANIAN DETERMINERS by Frederick B. Agard
II. ROMANIAN INTONATION AND STRESS by Robert L. Rankin
III. THE CONJUGATION OF THE ROMANIAN VERB by James E. Augerot
IV. PREPOSITIONS by Cornel Capuşan
V. POSSESSIVE AND DATIVE CONSTRUCTIONS IN ROMANIAN by Frederick B. Agard
VI. PRONUME ŞI FORME ENCLITICE by Anca Belchiţă Hartular
VII. PATTERNS OF SYNTAX IN ROMANIAN by Robert L. Rankin
VIII. NOUN CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN by James Algeo
IX. ADVERB CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN by James Algeo
X. STRUCTURA ETIMOLOGICĂ A VOCABULARULUI ROMÂNESC by Theodor Hristea

James E. Augerot
Editor
University of Washington
May 15, 1973

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface..........i

Table of Contents..........iii

1.0 Introduction..........1

2.0 Simple declarative sentences..........3

3.0 Complements and attributes..........4

4.0 Kinds of attributes..........5

5.0 Kinds of complements..........9

6.0 Focus and topicalization..........13

6.1 Focus..........14

6.2 Topicalization..........14

6.3 The subject..........15

6.4 The attribute..........16

6.5 The verb..........17

6.6 The direct object..........18

6.7 The indirect object..........19

6.8 The complement..........20

7.0 Negatives, interrogatives, imperatives, and exclamations..........23

8.0 Conclusion..........26

9.0 Exercises 1-6..........26

Bibliography..........31

PATTERNS OF SYNTAX IN ROMANIAN

1.0 Introduction. Most students, by the time they reach their second year of Romanian language study, have been exposed to most of the syntactic patterns of the language. Certainly they are at least somewhat familiar with the major sentence types. In an introductory course, however, such patterns are presented piecemeal, lesson by lesson. The pedagogic reasoning behind such an approach is sound; if all the necessary syntactic patterns were presented systematically, the student would be overwhelmed and would (rightly) give up in disgust.

At this point a somewhat more organized attempt to treat sentence syntax is in order; the student already has the basics "under his belt" (more hopefully, under his hat) and is ready for a review and an introduction to some slightly more sophisticated material.

Although systematic presentation is intended, this is not a reference grammar. It contains reviews and exercises, and as such still falls within the rubric of teaching grammar. Nor is it extensive enough to be called a reference grammar; the syntax of the reference grammar of the Romanian Academy (1966) occupies close to 600 pages -- the larger volume of a two volume set. This pamphlet attempts to provide the raw material that will enable a second year student to improve his understanding of the "mechanics" of Romanian syntax while improving his fluency (and concomitant self-confidence), and especially his grammatical and stylistic flexibility in the new language.

1.1 The notion of "sentence", reduced to its bare bones, is very simple indeed. In actual practice however, it scarcely appears simple; there are many thousands of possible combinations of words used by every individual in a year's time. There is a potentially endless number of sentences for each of the three to five thousand languages spoken on the Earth's surface. To view such diversity as the major hurdle for the average language learner would be a mistake however; the diversity is largely illusion. Sentences really are pretty simple.

They are simple because, far from being random collections of words, thoughts, phrases -- however we choose to think of them -- they are all composed of a fairly small number of units which fall into a few basic patterns. The patterns may be arranged in a few specific ways to highlight one or another part, but basically the rearrangements are not difficult. If languages were so terribly complex, only a few people would know them. Every normal human being speaks a language even before he begins school, although he may leave his school without knowing something as simple as the multiplication tables. Necessity plays a role, as may the very structure of the human brain, but no learning could be so completely universal if there were not clear patterns to be learned.

The elements that combine in these patterns all have traditional names: subject, predicate, object (direct or indirect) and complements of various kinds. Having been bombarded with these terms since grammar school, we sometimes use them mechanically, having forgotten that they actually mean something. They may be thought of as building blocks that can be moved around for linguistic effect.

Each utterance has a topic, usually the subject, about which something is said by means of a predicate, which may contain one or more objects. If we wish to say something additional about either of these basic elements, we may use another element, a complement (to amplify on verbs) or an attribute (to amplify on nouns). This secondary element occupies a place in the sentence near the element to which it refers.

Complements do just what the name implies; they complete something. They may range in size from a single word, often an adverb, to an entire second sentence joined to or collapsed within the first. If the speaker wishes to focus the attention of the hearer on some particular element, he may move it to a more prominent location in the sentence, or he may change it by raising the pitch of his voice.

In this section we will be dealing with the normal locations of the various parts of sentences. Then the changes that occur for questions, commands, negatives, etc. will be treated as well as the further shifts that are used for focusing the listener's attention.

2.0 Simple declarative sentences. The normal order for this most common type of sentence is *subject*, then *predicate*. Within the predicate, the order of elements is *verb*, then *direct object*, then *indirect object*.

Studenţii au prezentat petiţia rectorului universităţii.
The students presented the petition to the rector of the university.

(Eu) am dat un cadou logodnicii mele.
I gave my fiancée a gift.

Doamna Călinescu va plăti banii la croitor (croitorului).
Mrs. Călinescu will pay the tailor the money.

Invăţătoarea citeşte lecţia elevilor.
The teacher is reading the lesson to the pupils.

2.1 Naturally, if the object or indirect object (or both) is a pronoun, the object pronoun takes its normal order just before the verb. With certain verb forms, e.g. the gerund, the pronouns follow, as may the pronoun *o* 'her, it' in the past tense.

Studenţii au prezentat-o rectorului universităţii.
The students presented it to the rector of the university.

Studenţii i-au prezentat-o.
The students presented it to him.

Invaţatoarea le-o citeşte.
The teacher is reading it to them.

In any running conversation pronominalization of a subject, object, etc., is extremely common and therefore extremely important. The pronouns themselves are easy to remember, but the student should practice the patterns into which they enter until they become second nature, e.g. *Ţi-o dau, i-o dau, ni-o dau, vi-o dau, mi-a dat-o, ţi-a dat-o,* etc. Exercises of this kind can be constructed by the student. A sentence with a number of pronouns in it can be taken through the various possible persons and numbers as above, "I'm giving it to you", "I'm giving it to them", etc.

2.2 The order of elements described in 2.0 is not critical, especially with regard to the relative order of direct and indirect objects. They can sometimes be reversed with relatively little effect.

Studenţii au prezentat rectorului petiţia.
The students gave the rector the petition.

The order described is the normal one however, and should not be changed without a reason. The relative order of pronouns prefixed or suffixed to the verb is not flexible and cannot be changed.

3.0 Complements and attributes. Taking the basic sentence pattern to be the one described above, we find that the several kinds of attributes and complements normally *follow* the element in the sentence to which they refer. Students are usually aware that this is true for adjectives and adverbs in Romanian, but they do not always know that it is also true for longer stretches of speech -- phrases, clauses and the like -- which perform similar functions. Thus the following pairs of sentences have quite similar structures. The complement or attribute is underlined in each case.

Avionul pleacă devreme.
The plane leaves early.

Avionul pleacă la ora şase şi jumătate.
The plane leaves at 6:30.

The first example contains a simple adverb which follows the verb whose sense it "completes" (the traditional term is "modifies"); the second contains a phrase (prepositional in this instance) which is *used* as an adverb. Both are complements.

Avionul nou pleacă devreme.
The new plane is leaving early.

Avionul de tip IL-18 cu 4 motoare pleacă devreme.
The plane of the IL-18 series with 4 engines is leaving early.

Here the attributes are underlined in both cases, one a simple adjective, the other a phrase which behaves as a single adjective with regard to sentence pattern.

4.0 Kinds of attribute. The simplest attributes are adjectives. It is assumed that the student is familiar with the basic facts about adjectives in Romanian, i.e. that cardinal numerals precede nouns, that most adjectives follow the noun they modify, agreeing in gender, number and case, etc. Attributes may be used with any noun.

4.1 A few adjectives typically precede the noun (Academy grammar, p. 434 ff.). These include:

asemenea	like, similar
atare	such, like
aşa	such (colloquial)
tot, toată, etc.	all
biet	poor, pitiable

Asemenea oameni sînt greu de găsit.
Such men are hard to find.

O atare limbă trebuie învăţată încet.
A language like that must be learned slowly.

Aşa vorbe nu se aud printre oameni civilizaţi.
That kind of talk isn't heard among civilized people

Biata învaţatoare n-a ştiut ce să zică.
The poor teacher didn't know what to say.

The adjectives *tot* 'all' and *amîndoi* 'both' require the definite article.

Toată ziua am aşteptat.
All day I waited.

Toţi oamenii au primit injecţiile.
All the men received the innoculations.

Amîndoi profesorii sînt la bibliotecă.
Both of the professors are in the library.

There are also a number of adjectives whose meaning is different if they precede rather than follow the noun.

Sărmanul student a pierdut tot.
The unfortunate student lost everything.

Studentul sărman a pierdut tot.
The poverty stricken student lost everything.

Diferite feluri de fructe se vînd la piaţă.
Various kinds of fruit are for sale at the market.

Feluri diferite de fructe se vînd la piaţă.
Different kinds of fruit are for sale at the market.

Also:	*deosebită stimă*	special esteem
but:	*stimă deosebită*	a different (kind of) esteem

4.2 Adjectives in the comparative grade normally follow the noun, but the superlative grade may often precede, since, in the case of superlatives, the adjective is emphasized (see paragraph 6.4, below).

Cea mai bună ţuică se gaseşte în Transilvania.
The best plum brandy is found in Transylvania.

Eşti cea mai frumoasă fată.
You're the prettiest girl.

4.3 Attributes need not always be adjectives or phrases containing adjectives;

they may also be nouns in the genitive case or possessive pronouns. These nearly always follow their nouns. (A few minor kinds of exceptions are treated in the Academy grammar, p. 438f.)

Cîmpia transilvaniei e frumoasă şi iarna.
The Transylvania hill country is beautiful in Winter too.

Masina lui Ion este un Fiat.
John's car is a Fiat.

Aceste pere gustoase ale lui arată foarte bine pe masă.
These delicious pears of his look awfully good on the table.

Sora dumitale e studenta profesorului Ionescu.
Your sister is Professor Ionescu's student.

4.4 Prepositional phrase attributes are nearly always placed after the nouns they modify. (Only in poetry can prepositional phrases be moved before the modified noun.)

Un grup de spectatori a plecat devreme.
A group of spectators left early.

Au stat un an de zile la Iaşi.
They stayed a whole year in Iasi.

If adjectival and prepositional phrase attributes both modify the same noun the adjective normally precedes the prepositional phrase.

Un grup destul de mare de spectatori a plecat devreme.
A fairly large group of spectators left early.

4.5 A descriptive phrase may, as in English, be juxtaposed to a preceding noun as an appositive.

Profesorul Rosetti, lingvistul român, va prezenta o comunicare.
Professor Rosetti, the Romanian linguist, is going to present a paper.

Actually, there are two appositives in the above sentence, *lingvistul român* and *Rosetti*, which is juxtaposed to *profesor*. Attributes in apposition can be quite long, but their length, like the length of prepositional phrases used as attributes, is unimportant. They still follow the noun and provide the hearer (or reader) with extra information about it. One larger example:

> *Prof. Nicolae Iorga, cel mai bine cunoscut istoric român şi marele savant şi autor, a fost ucis în 1940.*
>
> Prof. Nicolae Iorga, the best known Romanian historian and a great scholar and author, was killed in 1940.

4.6 Attributes involving verbs in the infinitive, the gerund, or preposition plus past participle (what Romanian grammars call the supine) forms follow the nouns they modify.

> *Petru are multe de făcut.*
> Peter has a lot to do.
>
> *Propunerea asta lasă mult de dorit.*
> This proposal leaves a lot to be desired.
>
> *Dorinţa de a alerga a fost mai tare.*
> The desire to run was stronger.

4.7 The syntax of attributes in Romanian is basically simpler than in English. In English, attributes are divided into two classes, adjectives and all others. Adjectives generally precede the noun they modify while the others (prepositional phrases, appositives, and the like) normally follow. In Romanian, the class of adjectives is not normally placed ahead of the noun; attributes uniformly follow the noun in normal speech and writing. The list of adjectives which precede nouns is very short and should be committed to memory (see paragraph 3.1).

Changes in placement when the speaker wishes to emphasize the information in an attribute will be dealt with in a later section.

5.0 Kinds of complements. Just as the simplest attributes are adjectives, the simplest complements are adverbs. Again, it is assumed that the student is familiar with the basic characteristics of Romanian adverbs, their formation and placement.

5.1 Most Romanian grammars consider the direct and indirect object of a sentence kinds of complements, since they give further information about the verb. These most common of complements will be ignored here, however, since their basic characteristic should be clear to students from their introductory work in Romanian. Instead we will concentrate on other sorts of complementation.

5.2 Apart from adverbs proper, there are many kinds of complements which are basically adverbial in nature. They put the sentence into perspective with regard to time or place, they may mention how the action, etc., described by the verb was accomplished, with what instrument or by what agent, or they may elaborate other circumstances important to the intended hearer's understanding of the sentence.

The following types of complement classified according to function are considered basic, both in Romanian and English.

5.3 Complements of place. These generally take the form of a prepositional phrase and are normally placed after the verb following both the direct and indirect objects.

Congresul latiniştilor a avut loc la Bucureşti.
The Congress of Latinists took place in Bucharest.

Maria a pus florile lîngă fereastră.
Mary put the flowers alongside of the window.

Aveţi munţi înalţi şi în America?
Do you have high mountains in America too?

As in English, there may be more than one complement of place. Their relative order with regard to one another depends on the degree of importance the speaker assigns to the information conveyed in them.

Hoţul a ascuns banii chiar aici, în casa noastră, sub pat, într-o valiză!
The thief hid the money right here in our house, under the bed, in a briefcase!

The complement of place may be an entire second sentence combined with the main one. This fact does not affect its status as a complement or its placement.

Am găsit brăţara unde-o căutaserăm noi.
I found the bracelet where we had looked for it.

5.4 Complements of time. As in English, complements of time usually follow those of place. If the time element is considered more important than that of place, certain changes in their orders are possible. These special circumstances will be discussed below. Complements of time are also usually (but not always) in the form of prepositional phrases.

Şedinţa va avea loc la ora 1530.
The meeting will be held at 3:30 p.m.

Petru se sculase dis de dimineaţă.
Peter had gotten up at the break of day.

Nu puteţi intra acuma; profesorul doarme.
You can't go in now; the professor is asleep.

In the above sentence the complement *acuma* is placed at the end of the sentence where you would expect it. The difference is that there are *two* sentences present. They are combined as sentences often are, but the conjunction, which is usually present to tip you off, has been deleted here. It would presumably be something like *fiindcă* 'because'.

As above, an entire second sentence may function as a complement of time.

Ion plecase deja cînd l-a chemat Olgă.
John had already left when Olga called him.

Complements of time and place together.

De obicei, mergem la munte vara.
We usually go to the mountains in the summertime.
(Constructions like *de obicei* will be dealt with below.)

Ele au văzut-o în faţa hotelului, ieri după masă.
They saw her in front of the hotel yesterday after lunch.

5.4 Complement of causation. These nearly always involve the inclusion of an entire second sentence. Normally the complement is introduced by a preposition such as *fiindcă, pentru că* 'because', *ca* 'as, since', *căci* 'for, since, because'.

Am mîncat prea repede, fiind că mi-era foame.
I ate too fast because I was hungry.

N-am putut sta de vorbă cu tine pentru c-a sunat cineva la uşă.
I couldn't talk (converse) with you because somebody was ringing the doorbell.

Nu ştiu ţese, nu ştiu coase,	I can't weave, I can't sew,
Da nu-mi pasă, că-s frumoasă.	But I don't care, 'cause I'm pretty.
	(Academy grammar, Vol. II, p. 462)

(The *-s* in *că-s* is the widely used short form for 'I am'. It is often affixed to some other word, as here. If it is used as a spearate word it is written and pronounced *îs*. It is all that is left of the Latin *sum* 'I am'. *Sînt* is more literary, but *îs*, *-s* is used colloquially, e.g. *Eu-s tare obosit!* 'I'm really beat!'. For discussion, see Academy grammar, Vol. I, p. 279.)

If the preposition is deleted by the speaker, we obtain a sentence such as the one introduced above in 5.4: *Nu puteți intra acuma; profesorul doarme.*

5.5 It should be clear by now that prepositional phrases generally, irrespective of length or complexity, fall into one of the two classes of elements, other than simple subject and predicate, of which sentences are "constructed" by speakers of Romanian. They are either attributes or complements. Many other sub-categories of complement could be exemplified and named. The Romanian Academy's grammar devotes an entire chapter to these sentence completing elements and their relative order in the sentence (pp. 428-467). Two other categories are worth mention here; instrumental and agentive complements.

Instrumental complements inform the listener of the means by which whatever is described in the sentence gets done. Most frequently this involves a prepositional phrase introduced by *cu* 'with'. Occasionally some other preposition may serve as the "link" between verb and complement.

Hoțul a spart geamul cu ciocanul, și a furat tot.
The thief broke the window with the hammer and stole everything.

Are să descuie lacătul cu cheia.
He'll unlock the padlock with the key.

V-au trimis scrisoarea prin avion.
They sent you the letter by air mail.

Agentive complements are most common in passive sentences, just as in English. If we say "Sam loves Sylvia", the corresponding passive sentence would be "Sylvia is loved *by Sam*". *By Sam* is the agentive complement.

Similarly, in Romanian, the agent in each case is usually introduced by a preposition (corresponding to the English *by*). Usually it is *de*, or more formally *de către*.

> *Cea mai bună istorie a literaturii române a fost scrisă de George Călinescu.*
>
> The best history of Romanian literature was written by George Călinescu.

> *Laptele vacilor a fost luat de către strigoi.*
>
> The cows' milk was taken by ghosts.

5.6 Up to this point we have been dealing only with simple sentences and the regular order of grammatical elements within them. Many, perhaps most, actually occurring sentences are not as simple, however. They may be truncated because parts of them are "understood" from context. They may be negated or made into questions with accompanying shifts in the order of certain elements. The speaker may wish to emphasize some element or make it into the topic of the sentence. He may compound sentences or collapse one sentence within another as a relative clause. All of these operations disturb the basic orders described in the preceding paragraphs, but if the order is disturbed in each case, it is disturbed in some particular and regular way. There are patterns of "disturbance", and these patterns will be the topic of the rest of this pamphlet.

6.0 Focus and topicalization. These two related and very important concepts are responsible for most of the important departures from the basic order(s) of elements described in the above sections. In each sentence the speaker wishes to convey certain information to the listener. Normally, part of the sentence is "background" and mentions things (time, place, other circumstances, descriptions, etc.) of which the listener is more or less aware. In addition, the speaker usually introduces new information each sentence. The element of each sentence which contains the new information is the *focus* of the sentence.

6.1 Focus. Sometimes the focus is on the subject, but often it is not. In Romanian, one major way that the speaker indicates the focused element is by raising the pitch of his voice and delivering the focused word or phrase with greater amplitude. Different focused elements in otherwise identical sentences yield different meanings:

Imi pare bine să vă găsesc sănătos.
I'm happy to find you healthy.

Imi pare bine să vă găsesc sănătos.
I'm happy to find you healthy.

The second of the two sentences, with heavier accent and higher voice pitch on *sănătos*, leaves the listener with the impression that the speaker did not really expect to find him in such good shape. The first of the two is a more or less perfunctory greeting. They are quite different. Very clearly the second would not be appropriate in circumstances where the first would; and vice versa.

This use of accent and intonation, or pitch, is extremely common. Focus accent and pitch have their own patterns, may of them similar to English usage, however some of the Romanian patterns are different and must be learned by the student. Detailed discussion of these patterns is contained in another pamphlet in this series.

6.2 Topicalization. Grigore Nandriş, in his self-tuition manual of Romanian (1953, p. 156), sums up the question of sentence syntax with the statement, "The order of words in the sentence is determined by one rule: first things come first!". While Prof. Nandriş knew that this was a slight oversimplification, he was articulating, albeit loosely, the other major method of emphasizing one element of a sentence over the others. We saw above that focus is accomplished by changes in accent and intonation. A stronger form of focus may shift the entire element -- subject, object, verb, complement, etc. -- to the head of the sentence. This process is called *topicalization*. The topic is that element about which the rest of the sentence provides information. Usually whatever comes first is interpreted as the topic even though it may not always correspond to the grammatical subject. The only exception is the complement; preposed complements often just "set the stage" for the sentence with regard to time and place.

N-am văzut pe Radu astăzi de loc.
I haven't seen Radu today at all.

Pe Radu nu l-am văzut astăzi de loc.
Radu, I haven't seen at all today.

Astăzi n-am văzut pe Radu de loc.
Today I haven't seen Radu at all.

The first example above is neutral. The subject is *I* although it is omitted since that much is clear from the verb. The second sentence shifts the object, *Radu*, to the "front" thus topicalizing it. The grammatical subject of the verb 'see' is still *I*, but *Radu* is what the speaker intends the sentence to be about. In the last example it is the complement rather than the object that is topicalized. The time element, *today*, is the important factor when the sentence is phrased this way.

Most if not all of the basic elements of the sentence may undergo topicalization. We will examine the possibilities one by one. In a few cases, especially direct and indirect objects, topicalization causes other grammatical changes in the sentence.

6.3 **The subject.** If no other element is moved to the beginning of a sentence in Romanian, the subject itself is most often the topic. Emphasis of the subject may draw the listener's attention to this fact however. This is especially clear if the subject is a personal pronoun. Since such pronouns are normally omitted in speech, their presence effectively topicalizes the subject. Thus we have a fourth possible variant of the example sentence in 6.2.

Eu n-am văzut pe Radu astăzi de loc.
I haven't seen Radu today at all.

Subjects which are not represented by personal pronouns are emphasized if need be by using "focus" accent and intonation.

6.4 The attribute. To focus on an attribute the speaker may use accent and pitch as described above. In addition, if the attribute is a simple adjective it may be moved to a position preceding the noun it modifies. In this position it takes the definite article as well as case endings, instead of the noun.

Băiatul deştept studiază foarte mult.

Deşteptul băiat studiază foarte mult.

The bright lad studies a great deal.

As noted above, adjectives in the comparative degree are *not* preposed for emphasis, but superlatives often are. Focus on the adjective in the comparative degree, then, must utilize accent and pitch.

Femeia mai tînără devenise doctor.
The younger woman had become a doctor.

but: *Cea mai tînără femeie devenise doctor.*
The youngest woman had become a doctor.

Most other kinds of attributes must follow the noun even if they are to be emphasized. These include possessives (nouns and pronouns in the genitive case), and prepositional phrases of different kinds. These attributes are not normally topicalized at all.

Appositives behave slightly differently. If an attribute in apposition and the noun (or noun phrase) it modifies switch positions, the noun becomes an attribute (in apposition) itself, while the former attribute is now the head of the construction (i.e. often the subject).

Florica, soţia fratelui meu, este o cîntăreaţă talentată.
Florica, my brother's wife, is a talented singer.

After topicalization:

Soţia fratelui meu, Florica, este o cîntăreaţă talentată.
My brother's wife, Florica, is a talented singer.

6.5 The verb. Focus on the verb is common and is normally accomplished by means of accent and intonation. Further emphasis may be obtained in some cases by inversion of the subject and verb positions. (Subject-verb inversion is most common in imperatives and certain kinds of questions. These are discussed below.) In declarative sentences inversion is found with intransitive verbs more often than with transitives.

Vine profesorul cu examenele.
The professor is coming with the exams.

S-a dus Moş Crăciun fără să ne lase cadouri.
Santa Claus left without leaving us presents.

Ne place mult poezia lui Eminescu.
We like Eminescu's poetry very much.

Ii aştepta după colţ un miliţian.
A cop was waiting for him around the corner.

Inversion is most often found with *a veni* 'come', *a place* 'please', *a interesa* 'to interest', and a few others. It is not always possible and probably is best avoided by the student unless he is imitating a pattern he has heard often from native speakers of Romanian. English is no safe guide here.

If a verbal concept, e.g. *running, waving, eating*, etc. is to be the topic of an utterance it is not used in its conjugated form. Instead, it is made into a noun (nominalized) and then moved into topic position at the head of the sentence. The nominalized forms of verbs are traditionally called verbal nouns and infinitives. Topicalization of verbs, then, requires a change of category in addition to change of syntactic position;

the verbal noun becomes the actual grammatical subject of the sentence.

Durerea e o învăţătură.
Pain (i.e. to hurt) is a learning experience.

Tacerea e răspunsul celor înţelepţi către cei nebuni.
Silence (i.e. to keep silent) is the answer of the wise to the demented.

If focus and topicalization of verbs is difficult in terms of the grammatical and syntactic processes undergone, the same kinds of emphasis applied to complements (including direct and indirect objects) are relatively easy to master.

6.6 The direct object. The direct object, like the indirect object, is a kind of complement. The typical order of elements in the predicate of a sentence is as follows:

VERB   DIRECT OBJECT   INDIRECT OBJECT   COMPLEMENT: Place, time, etc.

This is just the typical order, however, and within the predicate there is considerable flexibility. Since the direct object usually comes first in the string of complements anyway, there is no place within the predicate it may be moved for greater emphasis. It may only be accented or moved to the topic position of left-most element in the sentence as a whole.

If the direct object is topicalized and thus positioned before the verb, it must be represented by an object pronoun attached to the verb in addition to the object-word itself. This leaves the verb with an object expressed twice; once at the beginning of the sentence and once by a pronoun attached to the verb.

Am lăsat cartea lui Sandu la bibliotecă.
I left Sandu's book at the library.

becomes: *Cartea lui Sandu am lasat-o la bibliotecă.*
Sandu's book I left (it) at the library.

In English we could not have both the preposed complement and the object pronoun in a single sentence. We might say either of the following:

Sandu's book I left at the library.

Sandu's book! I left it at the library!

The second example is always in two discrete parts. If they are combined, the object pronoun *it* disappears. Not so in Romanian; if an object (direct or indirect) precedes the verb, a pronoun referring to it must always be present too. Further examples of topicalized direct objects:

Petiţia, studenţii au prezentat-o rectorului universităţii.
The petition, the students gave to the rector of the university.

Lecţia, învăţătoarea o citeşte elevilor.
The lesson, the teacher is reading to the pupils.

Pe mine nu m-a atins.
Me it didn't touch.

Pe fratele ei cel mai în vîrsta l-a sărutat înainte de-a urca în avion.
Her elder brother she kissed before boarding the plane.

If you are not sure when to use *pe* with direct objects, you should consult one of the standard grammars, e.g. Nandriş, 1956, p. 172-74.

6.7 The indirect object. Indirect and direct objects are similar with regard to topicalization. Both require the extra object pronoun. The pronouns themselves are different of course. Indirect objects use the dative series of pronouns, whereas direct objects require the accusative series. The pronouns are never used this way in English, of course, but are translated here in parentheses as illustrations.

Logodnicii mele i-am dat un cadou.
To my fiancée I gave (her) a gift.

Croitorului, Doamna Călinescu îi va plăti banii.
To the tailor Mrs. Călinescu will give (him) the money.

Vouă nu vă plac regulile noi?
Don't you like the new rules?

Lui Susan i-ai trimis o scrisoare.
To Susan you've sent (her) a letter.
(Note that with foreign names the dative marker *lui* is used, even with women's names.)

Lui Gheorghe Rădulescu i-au cumpărat mai multe sticle cu bere.
For Gheorghe Rădulescu they bought several bottles of beer.

It was pointed out in the block diagram above that the indirect object usually precedes the complements of time, place, etc., but follows the direct object. A less emphatic accentuation of the indirect object may be obtained either by accent and pitch (as with other elements of the sentence) or by moving it to a position immediately following the verb and preceding the other complements.

It should be pointed out that either the direct or indirect object may be moved to the beginning of the sentence, but not both. It will never be the case therefore, that both an indirect and a direct object pronoun needs to be "duplicated" before the verb. The student should, however, keep in mind the rule of thumb for the transposed objects: If, for whatever reason, the object precedes the verb, it must also be represented by the appropriate object pronoun.

6.8 The complement. Complements may refer to circumstances (place, time, means, etc.) or to agent. Focus is possible in both cases via accent and intonation (cf. pamphlet on Romanian Intonation and Stress). "Topicalization" and emphasis are also possible in most, but not all, cases. When a complement is preposed to the rest of the sentence, however, the result is often best described as something other than "topic".

Complements of place and time are extremely common at the beginning of a sentence. This is especially true in the written language since these elements set the descriptive "stage" for the events, etc. described in the rest of the sentence. Unlike direct and indirect objects, more than one complement may be preposed.

La ora cinci, chiar în fața muzeului a avut loc un accident teribil.
At 5 o'clock, right in front of the museum there was a terrible accident.

Miercuri dimineața, din cauza zapezii, au fost suspendate toate orele.
Wednesday morning because of the snow all classes were cancelled.

Vara trecută la Sinaia într-o dimineață frumoasă am auzit-o cîntind păsărelelor.
Last summer in Sinaia one fine morning I heard her singing to the little birds.

Each of these examples has two or more preposed complements. In addition, the subjects follow the verb in those cases in which the verbs are intransitive. This latter is not obligatory, however. It would have been possible to reverse the complements and/or the order of subject and verb.

Din cauza zăpezii, miercuri dimineața au fost suspendate toate orele.

Din cauza zăpezii, miercuri dimineața toate orele au fost suspendate.

There are a few cases where no complement is possible.

(a) Agentive complements seldom get preposed, although they are occasionally encountered in poetry or in deliberately archaic styles. English is similar in this respect. One would not, in normal conversation, say, "*By an automobile* I was struck this morning".

Although King Arthur or Queen Guinevere might say, "*By Sir Lancelot's blade* the dragon was slain".

(b) Complements beginning with *că, căci* 'for' must follow the verb, since they require a *prior* statement of the condition(s) under which the action in the complement takes place. This also parallels English.

Nu pot merge cu tine, că-s foarte obosit.
I can't go with you for (because) I'm awfully tired.

(c) Complements beginning with *să* must normally remain following the main verb. The equivalent (infinitive) complement in English is similarly restricted. If it is necessary to express the subject of a verb preceded by *să* (i.e. a verb in the subjunctive), that subject must always follow the verb. The problem is seldom encountered, since the subject of the *să* phrase is usually the same as the subject of the main clause, and as such is omitted.

Aş vrea foarte mult să plec cu Doina la Viena.
I'd like very much to leave for Vienna with Doina.

(d) Complements beginning with *cum* 'as, seeing as how' must normally remain *preposed*.

Cum n-am mîncat, mi-e foame.
As I haven't eaten, I'm hungry.

(e) The adverbs *cam* 'rather', *mai* 'yet, still, etc.', *prea* 'too, very', *şi* 'also, too', *tot* 'completely, in all respects', practically without exception precede immediately the verb, adjective or adverb they modify. They intervene even between the object pronoun and the verb. (cf. Augerot, 1971, p. 187f.)

Nu-mi prea vine să cred una ca asta.
I won't swallow that one.

Asta nu se *mai* *întîmplă.*
That doesn't happen any more.

6.9 One other effective means of topicalizing an element of the sentence is to use the expressions *cît pentru*, *cît despre* 'as for, as to', or *în ce privește* 'as far as x is concerned, as concerns'. These expressions are placed at the head of the sentence and are usually followed by a comment using a verb in the subjunctive.

In ce privește purtarea dumitale, să nu-ți fie rușine!
As far as your behavior goes, you shouldn't be ashamed!

Cît pentru socoteală, o s-o plătesc eu.
As for the bill, I'll pay for it.

7.0 Negatives, interrogatives, imperatives, and exclamations. Each of these categories affects sentence patterns in some way. In some cases the processes involved in focusing and topicalization or emphasis of elements (subj., obj., complements, etc.) are also affected.

7.1 Negation. Students should already be aware of the basic patterns of negation in Romanian, use of double negatives, negative pronouns, and so forth. The important thing to note at this point is the effect of negation on focus. The negative element in a declarative sentence *is* the focused element. It always bears a heavier accent and a higher pitch. If both *nu* 'no, not' and another negative such as *nimeni* 'nobody', *nimic* 'nothing', *niciodată* 'never', etc. are used, it is the pronoun or adverb, rather than *nu*, that is focused upon. In questions, the negative element may or may not be focused. Negation is discussed further in the pamphlet on Intonation and Stress.

7.2 Interrogatives. Question formation. Romanian is of two types. There are yes/no questions in which the speaker asks for an affirmative or negative reaction, and there are questions formed with the aid of a "question word" such as *ce* 'what', *cum* 'how', *cine* 'who', *unde* 'where', *de ce* 'why', *cînd* 'when', *cît* 'how much', etc. Both kinds of questions may involve focus and subject-verb inversion.

Inversion of subject and verb is required in Q-word questions, although if a subject pronoun is left understood, as it frequently is, the inversion will not "show". The Q-word is also normally the focus and bears focus intonation.

Cînd aţi sosit (dumneavoastră) la Bucureşti?
When did you arrive in Bucharest?

Unde a cumpărat domnul Popescu maşina?
Where did Mr. Popescu buy his car?

Cum pot (eu) să fac o greşeală?
How can I make a mistake?

The focus aspect of Q-word questions is discussed in greater detail in the pamphlet on Intonation and Stress.

Yes/no questions follow the usual rules for focus and require no special use of intonation except at the end, where inflection rises, just as it does with many English questions. Raising the pitch towards the end of the question is, in fact, the most common way to form yes/no questions in Romanian.

Doamna Popinceanu a cumpărat o sticlă cu vin.
Mrs. Popinceanu bought a bottle of wine.

Doamna Popinceanu a cumpărat o sticlă cu vin? (with rising pitch)
Did Mrs. Popinceanu buy a bottle of wine?

N-ai reuşit de loc.
You didn't succeed at all.

N-ai reuşit de loc?
Didn't you succeed at all?

Subject-verb inversion may be used in addition to (but *not* in place of) rising intonation; the longer and more cumbersome the subject however, the less chance of inversion.

Tu ai zis că n-ai bani?
You said you don't have any money?

Ai zis tu că n-ai bani?
Did you say you don't have any money?

7.3 Imperatives. Most imperatives require subject-verb inversion whether they refer to second person singular (*tu, mata, dumneata*, etc.), or to second person plural (*voi, dumneavoastră, dumnealui*, etc.). In most cases, however, the pronoun is omitted, since it is nearly always clear from the verb form used, and from the context, that the subject is 'you'. Focus, accent, and intonation are very often a feature of the verb in imperatives. In negative imperatives, as with negative declaratives, focus is on the negative rather than on the verb itself.

Dă-mi o bere!
Gimme a beer!

Nu-mi da o bere!
Don't give me a beer!

More polite requests are often made by using *să* plus the subjunctive form of the verb. This is the only way that the so-called first person plural and third person imperatives may be formed, but it is common with the second persons also. The subject of the *să* phrase follows the verb if it is expressed at all. First and third person usage:

Să plecăm! or: *Hai să plecăm!*
Let's leave!

Să facă ce vrea.
Let him do what he wants.

And in the second person:

Să nu mănînci prea mult.
Don't go and eat too much.

Să închideţi uşa.
How about shutting the door.

Să fii cuminte!
Be good now!

8.0 Conclusion. In this short pamphlet we have explored some of the ways in which the "typical" Romanian sentence pattern may be transformed in order to provide emphasis, to shift topic, or set the stage for time and place. Students should be aware that many other deserving topics were slighted in this treatment. There are many other kinds of attributes and complements that were not treated here. They are discussed in several of the works included in the bibliography. The dual processes of coordination and subordination, resulting in compound and complex sentences, is left practically untouched, although many of the kinds of attributes and complements discussed are, in fact, subordinated sentences. These two important subjects deserve a chapter of their own.

9.0 Exercises. Practice manipulating syntactic patterns is somewhat different than the exercises normally constructed for basic grammar, i.e. verb endings, noun declensions, pronunciation, etc. Syntactic patterns are not as predictable as verb conjugations, where there is normally just one right way to do things and everything else is wrong. The role of *meaning* is much greater in questions of word order than in basic grammar. The real-world context and the presuppositions of the speaker also play a part. Last but not least, many of the patterns discussed in this pamphlet are similar to English patterns, and therefore may not present special difficulties.

In view of the above, this last section is divided into two parts. First there are suggestions of ways the student can familiarize himself more thoroughly with variant syntactic patterns, mainly through increased awareness of them. Second, I have included sample exercises in some cases; these are needed especially when a particular pattern requires substantive grammatical changes in Romanian.

9.1 Suggestions for exercises.

(a) Examine a page of Romanian prose, either fiction or nonfiction. It should be a passage without difficult vocabulary, so that you will be able to concentrate on the order of elements in each sentence. (Augerot and Popescu, 1971, p. 254f. is a good passage for this exercise.) Observe especially those elements which have been moved to the head of a sentence. Replace them in their "normal" order, and note the difference in the impact the sentence has on you. Transposition of elements is an important tool of nearly any literary style.

(b) Examine a page or two of dialogue from any good Romanian play. (Do not use the dialogues from elementary language lessons.) Note the large number of deviations from "normal" order due to the flow of conversation and the availability of contextual information to the speaker and hearer. The usage here will be quite different from the more literary style of (a) above.

(c) Since focus generally involves use of intonation, you should consult and use the exercises in the grammar pamphlet in this same series which deals with that subject. The sample exercises which follow deal only with transposition of elements to the beginning of the sentence. Especially important are direct and indirect object movement, since preposed objects require duplication in the form of an object pronoun.

Exercise 1. Prepose the indirect object(s) in the following sentences inserting the appropriate pronoun(s) in each case.

Model: *Am dat o carte Mariei.* *Mariei i-am dat o carte.*
We gave a book to Maria.

(a) *Dăm apă cailor.*
(b) *Aţi trimis o scrisoare lui Ion şi lui Radu.*
(c) *Vei citi o poveste elevilor.*
(d) *Au mai scris tatălui lor.*
(e) *Se plăteşte amendă miliţianului.*
(f) *Poţi dona ceva săracilor?*
(g) *A făcut o propunere senatului.*
(h) *Aveţi să oferiţi cadoul Martei?*
(i) *Trebuie să spuneţi adevărul profesorului.*
(j) *Nu vrei să scrii o scrisoare fratelui tău?*

Exercise 2. Prepose the direct object(s) in these sentences inserting the appropriate pronoun(s).

Model:

Am văzut filmul Răzbunătorii săptămîna trecută.
I saw the film *The Avengers* last week.

Filmul Răzbunătorii l-am văzut-o săptămîna trecută.

(a) *Ai lăsat portofelul tău la frizerie.*
(b) *Cunoşti pe mama Mariei?*
(c) *N-am putut cumpăra maşina nouă.*
(d) *Aţi plătit deja socoteala coaforului.*
(e) *Sanda a oferit florile actorului italian.*
(f) *Căutam pe Vasile fiindcă avea caietul nostru.*
(g) *N-au auzit niciodată grupul* the Beatles?
(h) *Am trimis rufele la spălătoria Nufărul.*
(i) *Domnul Pop a pierdut cheile chiar în faţa casei.*
(j) *Nu va putea plăti amenda pe loc.*

Exercise 3. Move the complement(s) to the prominent or stage-setting position at the head of the sentence.

Model:

Familia mea n-a putut cumpăra cafea în timpul războiului.

My family couldn't buy coffee during the war.
In timpul războiului familia mea n-a putut cumpăra cafea.

(a) *Diplomaţii au vizitat fabrica de tractoare la Braşov.*
(b) *Trebuie să plece imediat după masă.*
(c) *Se cumpără biletele la Gara de Nord.*
(d) *Ei au fost păstori la început.*
(e) *Progresul a venit mult mai repede în urma introducerii căilor ferate.*
(f) *Ne-am întors la facultate după patru zile.*
(g) *Economia naţională a cam suferit în ultimii ani.*
(h) *Muncitorii au adus ordinatorul într-un camion mare.*
(i) *N-ai atins firul cu mîinile?*
(j) *Vom preda limba română anul viitor în toamnă.*

Exercise 4. Make up ten sentences using *mai* 'still, again' in the position immediately preceding the verb. (Or, if you use an auxiliary, before the main verb.)

Model:

Familia Florescu mai locuieşte la Ploieşti?
Does the Florescu family still live in Ploieşti?

Aţi mai fost la "Cerbul carpatin" cu Iulia.
You've been back (again) to the Stag of the Carpathians (restaurant) with Julia.

Exercise 5. Make up ten sentences using *cam* 'sort of, rather, somewhat' in the same syntactic position as in Exercise 4 above.

Model:

Mă cam doare piciorul
My foot is kind of hurting (me).

Petru s-a cam supărat cînd sora sa a început să fumeze.
Peter got rather angry when his sister started to smoke.

Exercise 6. Make up ten sentences using *prea* 'too, too much, very much' in the same syntactic positions as in Exercises 4 and 5 above.

Model:

Piesa asta nu mă prea impresionează.
That play doesn't impress me too much.

N-au prea încercat să învețe limba spaniolă.
They have not tried very hard to learn Spanish.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Academia R.S.R. 1966. *Gramatica limbii române*, vols. I and II. Bucharest, Ed. academiei. Volume I covers the various parts of speech, the relative order of pronouns in the verb phrase, adjectives, adverbs. Volume II deals with sentence syntax.

Augerot, James and Florin Popescu. 1971. *Modern Romanian.* Seattle, The University of Washington Press.

Guţu-Romalo, Valeria. 1968. *Morfologie structurală a limbii române,* Bucharest, Ed. academiei.

Nandriş, Grigore. 1953. *Colloquial Rumanian.* London, Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd.

Pop, Sever. 1948. *Grammaire roumaine.* Bibliotheca romanica, Series prima. IV. Berne, A. Francke.

Şerban, Vasile. 1970. *Sintaxa limbii române, curs practic,* second edition. Bucharest, Ed. didactica şi pedagogica. Written for Romanian students, this book amplifies considerably on the sentence syntax of the Academy grammar (see above).

Vasiliu, Emanuel and Sanda Golopenţia-Eretescu. 1969. *Sintaxa transformaţională a limbii române.* Bucharest, Ed. academiei. This book is recommended for linguists who have studied transformational syntax.

ROMANIAN GRAMMAR PAMPHLETS

James E. Augerot, Editor

VIII. NOUN CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN

by

James Algeo

This work was developed pursuant to a contract between
the U.S. Office of Education and the Center for Applied Linguistics

(OEC-0-72-1588)

1973

PREFACE

These Romanian grammar pamphlets grew out of meetings held at the American Council of Learned Societies for the development of materials for Eastern European languages and subsequent funding by the U.S. Office of Education through the Center for Applied Linguistics. Priorities for language materials were established by polling most of those concerned with the teaching of Romanian in the United States. It was decided that, among other things, a series of grammar pamphlets, each treating specific problems and providing exercises, was the best way of attacking the shortage of materials for students beyond the first-year manuals. The pamphlets were thought useful because of the flexibility they would offer to a field in which teaching philosophies differed greatly from institution to institution and student needs beyond the first year course are also very disparate. The teacher of Romanian will have the opportunity to tailor his course to his students' needs using any number of the pamphlets in whatever order he determines to be most fruitful. Each pamphlet is basically independent of all the others, although there is some cross reference and the series has been arranged in an order suggesting the best use, all other things being equal. I would suggest that the teacher might find the first 3 pamphlets useful even before the first year of Romanian is completed. The remainder could very well serve as companion units to a second-year course that concentrates on readings and a refinement of the students' appreciation of finer points of Romanian grammar and expression. Eventually we hope to see more materials for advanced courses including a social science reader, more grammar pamphlets and a reference grammar, as well as a good dictionary.

Each pamphlet contains exercises appropriate to the materials and a brief bibliography for the enterprising student who wants to begin to make a serious study of the language.

The Editor takes full responsibility for the arrangement and the typography of the series. The particular theoretical approach and content of

each pamphlet varies considerably, however, and the individual authors remain responsible in these areas. We felt that this was not in any way detrimental in relation to the goals of the series. We included two of the pamphlets in the original Romanian. We realize that these will be somewhat difficult for the less advanced student, but he must begin to make the transition some time and these will help him to that end.

I thank Ms. Dorothy Rapp of the Center for Applied Linguistics for her always pleasant logistical assistance and to Ms. Kathleen Murphy, the project Secretary and in fact, although not in title, Assistant Editor, I owe a great deal. Professor Mircea Borcilă of the University of Cluj has been a constant and delightful consultant for things Romanian.

The titles and authors of the ten pamphlets in the recommended order are as follows:

I. SOME ROMANIAN DETERMINERS by Frederick B. Agard
II. ROMANIAN INTONATION AND STRESS by Robert L. Rankin
III. THE CONJUGATION OF THE ROMANIAN VERB by James E. Augerot
IV. PREPOSITIONS by Cornel Capuşan
V. POSSESSIVE AND DATIVE CONSTRUCTIONS IN ROMANIAN by Frederick B. Agard
VI. PRONUME ŞI FORME ENCLITICE by Anca Belchiţă Hartular
VII. PATTERNS OF SYNTAX IN ROMANIAN by Robert L. Rankin
VIII. NOUN CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN by James Algeo
IX. ADVERB CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN by James Algeo
X. STRUCTURA ETIMOLOGICĂ A VOCABULARULUI ROMÂNESC by Theodor Hristea

James E. Augerot
Editor
University of Washington
May 15, 1973

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface i

Table of Contents iii

1.0 Introduction 1

2.0 Subordination in Romanian 2

2.1 Types of noun clauses 2

2.2 Noun clauses as subject 4

Exercise 1 5

2.3 Noun clauses as direct object 5

2.31 Verbs with two direct objects 6

Exercise 2 8

2.4 Noun clauses as indirect object 9

2.5 Noun clauses as object of preposition 9

3.0 The redundant pronoun in noun clauses 10

4.0 *că, să, ca...să* 11

4.1 *ca...să* and *să* 12

4.2 *că* and *să* 13

4.3 Subjunctive and indicative 14

5.0 Verbs according to use with *că* or *să* 16

Exercises 3-12 19

Key to exercises 22

Footnotes 25

Bibliography 26

NOUN CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN

1.0 Introduction. Traditionally, sentences fall into one of three major categories: simple, compound and complex. Simple sentences are essentially those which contain by themselves a complete, meaningful proposition without any additional sentence or sentences subordinate to it. For example:

He left.
I saw him.
The old man took the train to Bucharest.

Compound sentences contain two or more simple sentences of equal or nearly equal importance loosely connected by a coordinating conjunction such as *and, but, or*.

John left and George stayed.
You may remain or you may leave.
He knows the answer but I don't.

Complex sentences are in fact simple sentences in which one element, a noun, adjective, or adverb, rather than appearing as a single word or phrase, is itself a sentence, complete with subject and verb. Since, however, it constitutes part of the sentence into which it is imbedded and since it often cannot stand alone, being dependent upon the entire sentence for meaning, it is referred to as the dependent or subordinate clause while the rest of the sentence is called the independent or main clause.

In the following sentences, for example:

(a) I know *that he is coming.*
(b) *When I saw him* he was ill.
(c) The man *that I saw* is here.

the clauses in italics are dependent upon the entire sentence for meaning. In sentence (a), *that he is coming* is the direct object of the verb *know* and could be replaced be a simple noun such as *the answer*. Similarly, in (b) *when I saw him* functions as an adverb of time and could be replaced by any simple adverb of time such as *yesterday*. In sentence (c) the phrase *that I saw* modifies *man* adjectivally and is equivalent to a single adjective such as *poor* (with the obligatory change in position, of course: *The poor man is here.*)

A word which introduces a subordinate clause, whether a pronoun, conjunction or adverb, is referred to as a subordinator.

2.0 Subordination in Romanian. In Romanian, as in English, the same three sentence types exist. Consider the following sentences:

Nu ştiu adresa ta.	I don't know your address.
Vin la tine mîine.	I'm going to your house tomorrow.
L-am văzut pe băiatul sărac.	I saw the poor boy.

In these sentences the noun *adresa,* the adverb *mîine,* and the adjective *sărac* could be replaced by subordinate clauses which perform the same function. For example:

Nu ştiu cum a putut s-o facă.	I don't know how he was able to do it.
Vin la tine cînd se termină ora.	I'm going over to your house when class is over.
L-am văzut pe băiatul care vinde ziare.	I saw the boy that sells newspapers.

In these sentences *cum a putut s-o facă* is the direct object of *ştiu; cînd se termină ora* modifies the verb *vin* in the same way that *mîine* or any adverb of time does; and *care vinde ziare* is an adjectival modifier of *băiat.*

In Romanian, as in English, any dependent clause can be replaced by a single word that performs the same function. If the word that replaces a given clause is a noun, adjective, or adverb the clause, accordingly, is itself nominal, adjectival, or adverbial. The subject of this study is the nominal clause, or as it will be referred to here, the noun clause.

2.1 Types of noun clauses. In the same way that nouns may be the subject or direct, indirect or prepositional object of a verb, so may a noun clause perform these functions. Examine the following examples:

(a) subject

Imi place filmul.	I like the film.
Imi place cum arăţi.	I like the way you look.

In these sentences both *filmul* and *cum arăţi* are subjects of the verb *place.*

(b) direct object

Vreau cartea.	I want the book.
Vreau să-mi dai cartea.	I want you to give me the book

Here both *cartea* and *să-mi dai cartea* are direct objects of the verb *vreau.*

(c) indirect object

I-am dat cartea lui Ion.	I gave the book to John.
I-am dat cartea cui mi-a cerut-o.	I gave the book to the one who asked me for it.

In these sentences both *lui Ion* and *cui mi-a cerut-o* are indirect objects of the verb *am dat.*

(d) object of preposition

Mă gîndesc la tine.	I am thinking of you.
Mă gîndesc la ce trebuie să fac.	I am thinking of what I have to do.

In the following pages these four types of noun clause are analyzed in detail.

2.2 Noun clause as subject.

(a) clauses with *cine* and *ce.* Clauses headed by *cine* 'whoever', 'the one', 'he who', and *ce* 'what', 'whatever', 'that which', often function as subjects in sentences.

Cine tace merge în pace.	He who keeps silent goes in peace.
El merge în pace.	He goes in peace.

In these sentences *cine tace* and *el* are subjects of the verb *merge.*

Cine ar crede povestea aceea ar crede orice.	Whoever would believe that story would believe anything.
Ce am văzut mă întristează.	What I have seen saddens me.
Ce spune el nu mă interesează.	What he says doesn't interest me.

(b) impersonal predicates. Many impersonal expressions such as *este posibil, este probabil, este păcat,* etc. function as predicates of subject clauses. They are most common [illegible]nected to the main clause by the conjunctions *că, să, ca... să, or dacă.*

E interesant că vine.	It is interesting that he is coming.
E adevărat că nu mă cunoaşte.	It is true that he doesn't know me.
Ar fi plăcut să ne viziteze.	It would be nice for him to visit us.
E posibil să nu ne mai vedem.	It is possible that we will never see each other again.
E necesar ca profesorul de engleza să ne ajute mai mult.	It is necessary for the English professor to help us more.
Mi-e tot una dacă i-o spui sau nu.	It makes no difference to me whether you tell it to him or not.

(c) clauses with impersonal reflexives. Certain verbs when used reflexively in the third person singular have an impersonal meaning and, like the expressions in section (b) above, are followed by a subject clause introduced by *că*, *să*, *ca...să*, or *dacă* or by an adverbial conjunction such as *cît*, *cînd*, *unde*, *de ce*.[1]

Se ştie că ai venit.	It is known (people know, etc.) that you have come.
Se vede că îţi place prăjitura.	One can see that you like the pastry.
Se poate că are bani.	It's possible that he has money.
Se poate să aibă bani?	Is it possible for him to have money?
Nu se poate să nu aibă bani.	It is impossible for him not to have money.
Nu mi se pare că e evident.	It doesn't seem obvious to me.
Se cuvine să primească un salar mai mare.	It is fitting that he receive a larger salary.
Nu se ştie dacă a terminat sau nu.	No one knows whether or not he has finished.
Nu se înţelege de ce (pentru ce) am făcut-o.	No one understands why I have done it.

(d) clauses with impersonal verbs and dative. A small number of verbs are often used impersonally together with a noun or pronoun in the dative. Such clauses are followed by a subject clause normally introduced by *că*, *să*, *ca...să*, or *dacă*. Such verbs are *a-i veni cuiva* 'to feel like', *a-i conveni cuiva* 'to suit', *a-i păsa cuiva* 'to care', etc.

Imi vine să plîng.	I feel like crying.
Ii convine că eşti aici.	It suits him that you are here.
Ii convine să fii aici.	It suits him for you to be here.
Ii convine ca tu să fii aici.	It suits him for you to be here.

Nu îmi pasă că vine.	It doesn't matter to me that he is coming.
Nu îmi pasă dacă vine.	I don't care if he comes.

Exercise 1. Translate the following sentences.

a. Whoever wants to remain here can wait for us.
b. He who knows everything knows nothing.
c. What I have now satisfies me.
d. What you tell me means nothing.
e. It is not necessary for him to tell us.
f. It is preferable for us to talk to him now.
g. It is believed that you are from Bulgaria.
h. It would be absurd for you to go home now.
i. It is a shame he has no money.
j. I don't care if he eats or not.
k. I feel like singing.
l. It would suit me for him to bring the *ţuica*.
m. It would be preferable for us to talk to you later.
n. It is all the same to me whether they pay or not.
o. I like your telling me the truth.

2.3 Noun clauses as direct object. As a general rule direct object clauses are introduced by the same conjunctions that introduce subject clauses (i.e. *cine, ce, că, să, ca...să, dacă, cît, cum, unde, de ce,* etc.)

(a) clauses with *cine* and *ce*.

Nu ştiu adresa.	I don't know the address.
Nu ştiu cine ţi-a spus asta.	I don't know who told you that.

In these sentences both *adresa* and *cine ţi-a spus asta* are direct objects of the verb *ştiu*. Consider the following additional examples:

Vreau ce vrei tu.	I want what you want.
Nu ştiu ce să fac.	I don't know what to do.
Numai el a inteles ce am vrut să spun.	Only he understood what I meant.

(b) clauses with *că, să,* and *ca...să*.

Văd cîinele.	I see the dog.
Văd că vine.	I see that he is coming.

Cînele and *că vine* are both direct objects of the verb *văd*.

Ştiu că profesorul a venit.[2]	I know that the professor has come.
Credem că ceilalţi au dreptate.	We believe that the others are right.
Cine vrea să manînce acum?	Who wants to eat now?
Dacă doriţi să mai staţi, puteţi.	If you want to stay longer, you may.
Aşteptăm să ajungă trenul.	We're waiting for the train to arrive.
Aş vrea ca prietenul tău din Bucureşti să vină cu noi.	I would like your friend from Bucharest to come with us.

(c) clauses with *dacă*.

Să vedem dacă a venit.	Let's see if he has come.
Nu ştii dacă s-a adus poşta?	Do you know if they've brought the mail?
Am vrut să aflu dacă pleacă sau nu.	I wanted to find out if they are leaving or not.

(d) clauses with *cît*, *de ce*, *unde*, *cînd*, etc.

Ştiu cît ai lucrat in ultima vreme.	I know how much you've been working lately.
Nu înţeleg de ce n-a putut să termine mai repede.	I don't understand why he wasn't able to finish sooner.
Nu mi-a spus unde s-a dus.	He didn't tell me where he went.
Cine ştie cînd vine înapoi.	Who knows when he's coming back.

2.31 Verbs with two direct objects. The following verbs in Romanian take two direct objects rather than one direct and one indirect as might be expected.

(a) verbs of communication.

a asculta	to listen
a întreba[3]	to ask (a question)
a învăţa[4]	to teach or to learn
a ruga	to ask (a favor)
a sfătui	to advise
a informa	to inform
a anunţa	to announce

Compare the object pronouns used in the following pairs of sentences.

Imi spune să plec.	He tells me to leave.
Mă sfătuieşte să plec.	He advises me to leave.
Mi-a povestit ce s-a întîmplat.	He related to me what had happened.

Mi-a informat ce s-a întîmplat.	He informed me of what had happened.

Other examples:

Te rog să n-o spui nimănui.	Please don't tell anyone.
L-am învăţat să cînte.	I taught him to sing.
Am învăţat să cînt.	I learned how to sing.
Ar trebui să-i întrebăm dacă sînt în stare să continue.	We ought to ask them if they are up to continuing.

These verbs are not only used with *că* and *să* but with adverbial conjunctions such as *de ce, cînd, cum dacă, pentru ce:*

$$\textit{L-am informat} \left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{cînd}\\ \textit{cum}\\ \textit{că}\\ \textit{de ce}\\ \textit{pentru ce}\end{array}\right\} \textit{vine.}$$

$$\textit{L-am întrebat} \left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{cînd}\\ \textit{cum}\\ \textit{dacă}\\ \textit{de ce}\\ \textit{pentru ce}\end{array}\right\} \textit{vine.}$$

(b) verbs of perception:

a vedea	to see	*a asculta*	to listen
a auzi	to hear	*a simţi*	to feel
a observa	to observe	*a cunoaşte*	to know, be acquainted with

The verbs of communication listed in the preceding section call for two direct objects even though, in most cases, one of them seems indirect in meaning. Two direct objects are used with verbs of perception as well, but both are clearly direct in meaning. Such constructions, quite common in Romanian, especially at the colloquial level, occur as the result of the fusion of two simple sentences. One sentence indicates the perception of an action such as *văd că lucrează* 'I see that (he) is working'; the second sentence is a logical consequence of the first, that is, if the action is perceived, the actor is perceived as well: *îl (o) văd.* These two sentences can be combined to form the complex proposition *Il (o) văd că lucrează* 'I see that (he, she) is working' or 'I see (him, her) working'. Such verbs always take *că* as subordinator. Note the following examples:

Il aud că strigă.	I hear him shouting.
Te cunosc cît eşti de hoţi.	I know what a thief you are.
I-ai observat cum au venit înapoi?	Did you see them come back?

(b) verbs of obligation or expectation.

a aştepta	to expect
a condamna	to condemn
a forţa	to force
a invita	to invite
a destina	to destine
a numi	to appoint
a alege	to choose, elect

These verbs and others with similar meaning take two direct objects and are always followed by *să*.

L-astept să vină.	I am expecting him to come.
Imprejurările l-au destinat să trăiască singur.	Circumstances destined him to live alone.
Nu pot să te fortez să faci ce nu vrei să faci.	I can't force you to do what you don't want to do.
M-au invitat să ţin o conferinţă.	They invited me to give a lecture.

EXERCISE 2. Rewrite the following sentences replacing the direct object with an appropriate noun clause.

Model: *Cine ştie răspunsul?* *Cine ştie* { *să facă ciorbă?*
unde s-a dus profesorul?
de ce plouă întotdeauna? }

a. *Vreau ziarul de azi.*
b. *Văd munţii.*
c. *Nu credem povestea aceea.*
d. *Nu dorim nimic.*
e. *Nu ne-a spus adevărul.*
f. *Mi-a povestit ceva foarte interesant.*
g. *L-a întrebat adresa.*
h. *Nu ştiu cîntecul acela.*
i *M-a învăţat un cîntec frumos.*
j. *Aştept autobusul de la şapte.*
k. *Am observat mişcările animalelor.*

l. *L-au ales preşedintele clubului.*
m. *I-aţi anunţat ora şedinţei?*
n. *Am numit-o la consiliu studenţilor.*
o. *Prefer bere după cină.*

2.4 Noun clauses as indirect object. Although such usage is relatively rare, noun clauses can function as the indirect object of the verb of the main clause. The dependent clause in such cases is most commonly headed by an indefinite pronoun such as *cui* or *oricui*. Compare the following pares of sentences:

I-am dat lui adresa.	I gave the address to him.
I-am dat adresa cui mi-a cerut-o.	I gave the address to the one who asked me for it.
O să i-o trimit lui Nicolae.	I'll send it to Nicholas.
O să i-o trimit oricui are nevoie.	I'll send it to whoever needs it.

Other examples:

Nu poţi să spui adevărul cui nu vrea să asculte.	You can tell the truth to one who doesn't want to listen.
Cui nu are nimic nu-i pasă dacă pierde ceva.	He who has nothing doesn't care if he loses something.
O să-i povestesc bancul oricui vrea să-l audă.	I'll tell the joke to anyone who wants to hear it.

2.5 Noun clauses as object of preposition. Nearly any preposition may introduce a noun clause as well as a noun or pronoun. These clauses are headed most often by the indefinite pronouns *cine, oricine,* or *ce* or by an adverb such as *cum, cît, unde, cînd,* etc. Compare the following sets of examples:

Soluţia problemei depinde acum de preşedinte.	The solution to the problem depends now on the president.
Soluţia problemei depinde acum de cine o înţelege.	The solution to the problem depends now on whoever understands it.
Soluţia problemei depinde acum de cum este înţeleasă.	The solution to the problem depends now on how it is understood.
Mă gîndesc la tine.	I am thinking of you.
Mă gîndesc la cine mă iubeşte.	I am thinking of the one who loves me.

Other examples:

A scris o carte despre ce s-a întîmplat dupǎ razboi.	He wrote a book about what happens after the war.
Articolul va fi scris de cine înţelege bine despre ce e vorbǎ.	The article will be written by one who understands what it's all about.
N-am putut sǎ cumpǎr nimic cu ce mi-ai dat.	I couldn't buy anything with what you gave me.
N-a putut sǎ vorbeascǎ dupǎ cît a suferit.	He was unable to speak after all that he had suffered.

3.0 The redundant pronoun in noun clauses. In Romanian it is common for a direct or indirect object to be expressed twice in the same sentence through the use of a redundant pronoun. This pronoun may precede the object (*anticipare*) as in *I-am spus bǎiatului sǎ vinǎ.* 'I told the boy to come.' Or it may follow the object (*reluare*) as in *Pe profesorul acela nu l-am vǎzut niciodatǎ.* 'I've never seen that professor.' As a general rule such redundant usage is obligatory only if (a) the noun or pronoun to which the redundant pronoun refers precedes the verb of which it is the object; or, (b) the direct object is a personalpronoun preceded by *pe*. Otherwise it is optional.

It should be noted that in colloquial Romanian redundance in optional cases is extremely frequent. For example, *Am vǎzut pe Ion,* or optionally *L-am vǎzut pe Ion,* but only *Pe Ion l-am vǎzut* never **Pe Ion am vǎzut.* All are translated 'I saw John'. Similarly *Am dat-o bǎiatului* or *I-am dat-o bǎiatului,* but only *Bǎiatului i-am dat-o* not **Bǎiatului am dat-o.* All are translated 'I gave it to the boy'. In the case of direct object clauses the same rule applies: if the clause precedes the verb of which it is the direct object a redundant pronoun is used not only in the main clause but within the dependent clause as well. Such constructions are limited to those in which the dependent clause is headed by *pe care, pe cine, pe cît, pe oricare, pe oricine, pe oricît* and is the subject of the verb of both clauses.

Pe oricine l-a vǎzut l-a strigat.	Whomever he saw he called.
Pe cine îl iubeşte nu-l lasǎ in pace.	Whomever he likes he doesn't leave alone.
Pe cîti am vrut sǎ-i ajut i-am ajutat.	However many I've wanted to help I have helped.

Pe oricine îl respect l-ascult cu atenţie.	Whomever I respect I listen to attentively.

When normal word order is followed (that is, subject is followed by a verb) the redundant pronoun, *although predominant in colloquial speech,* is optional.

Il ascult cu atenţie pe oricine îl respect.
or: *Ascult cu atenţie pe oricine respect.*

L-a strigat pe oricine l-a văzut.
or: *A strigat pe oricine a văzut.*

In general, the redundant pronoun in such cases appears in the dependent clause only if it is present in the main clause. Indirect object clauses which begin a sentence and which are headed by the indefinite pronouns *cui* or *oricui* must be repeated in the form of a redundant indirect object pronoun in the main clause. As in the case of direct object clauses, redundancy is optional if normal word order is followed.

Cui m-a ajutat i-am dat 20 de lei.	I gave 20 lei to whoever helped me.
Oricui are chef îi propun să mergem la teatru.	I am proposing to whoever feels like it that we go to the theatre.
Oricui îi spui o parte va trebui să-i spui şi restul.	To whomever you tell a part of it you will have to tell the rest as well.

Each of the three preceding sentences may be expressed in two other ways:

I-am dat 20 de lei cui m-a ajutat.
Am dat 20 de lei cui m-a ajutat.

4.0 *că, să, ca...să.* From the examples provided on the preceding pages it is obvious that the conjunctions *că, să, ca...să* are quite common in Romanian. Compare the sentences:

Ştiu că vine.	I know he is coming.
Vreau să vină.	I want him to come.
Vreau ca el să vină.	I want him to come.

It is also the case that these conjunctions pose certain problems for speakers of English. Foremost among these are the differences between *să* and *ca...să.* Differences in meaning as well as differences in word order must be taken into account.

4.1 *ca...să* and *să*. Although both of these conjunctions always introduce the subjenctive without any important difference in meaning they can never appear in exactly the same context. The subject of a dependent clause is enclosed by *ca...să* when it (the subject) precedes the verb (in normal word order) and when it is different from the subject of the main clause. The subject can be accompanied by any number of modifiers:

Am vrut ca Ion să ramînă cu noi.	I wanted John to stay with us.
Nu-i posibil ca un om cinstit şi bun să facă aşa ceva.	It's not possible for an honest and kind man to do something like that.

It is often the case, however, that the subject of the main clause is the same as that of the dependent clause or that, for stylistic reasons, the subject of the dependent clause is either not mentioned or is placed after the verb. In either case *ca* is deleted.

Am vrut să ramînă Ion cu noi.	I wanted John to stay with us
Am vrut să ramînă cu noi.	I wanted him to remain with us.
Am vrut să ramîn cu voi.	I wanted to stay with you.

Compare the following sets of examples:

Vreau ca Ion să meargă.	I want John to go.
Vreau să meargă Ion.	I want John to go.
Vreau să meargă.	I want him to go.
Aşteptăm ca trenul de la cinci să sosească.	We are waiting for the five o'clock train to arrive.
Aşteptăm să sosească trenul de la cinci.	We are waiting for the five o'clock train to arrive.
Aşteptăm să sosească.	We are waiting for it to arrive.

The choice between sentences with *ca...să* and those with *să*, where the subject is mentioned, is governed by at least two considerations.

(a) emphasis. In most cases the final element in a sentence is the one which receives the attention of the speaker.
In the examples

Aşteptăm ca trenul de la cinci să sosească.

and

Aşteptăm să sosească trenul de la cinci.

two slightly different messages are being conveyed. In the first sentence we are declaring *what* we expect to arrive *(trenul de la cinci),* whereas in the second we are emphasizing what we expect the train to do *(să sosească).* In the first sentence we are identifying the train, the five o'clock train rather than, say, the four o'clock train. In the second the train itself is not the primary issue, but rather the fact that it is expected to arrive (rather than depart).

(b) style. Often if the subject of the subjunctive is modified by one or more long phrases, normal word order is followed and *ca...să* rather than *să* is preferred.

> *Aş vrea ca toţi cei care au vrut să audă conferinţa să se prezinte aici mîine la ora opt.*

4.2 *că* and *să*. The principle syntactic difference between these two conjunctions is, of course, that *că* always introduces the indicative and *să* the subjunctive. In addition to this fundamental difference there are more restrictions upon the position of *să* with regard to the verb it introduces than upon *că*. The most important of these is that only three classes of words may be inserted between *să* and the subjunctive:

(a) all unstressed object pronouns *(mă, îmi, te, îţi, îl, o, îi, ne, vă, îi, le, se* and *îşi).*

(b) the adverbs *prea, cam, şi* and *mai.*

(c) the negative particle *nu.*

Different combinations of the three word classes are also permitted.

Vrea să te vadă.	He wants to see you.
Nu cred că o să-şi aducă aminte.	I don't think he will remember.
Ar fi preferabil să le spunem acum.	It would be preferable to tell them now.
Am cărţile dumneavoastră însă nu pot să vi le dau.	I have your books but I can't give them to you.
Zice că nu vrea să mai facă nimic.	He says he doesn't want to do anything more.

Sper că n-o să se prea supere.	I hope he won't get too angry.
M-a rugat să nu ţi-le mai dau.	He asked me not to give them to you any more.
Am vorbit cu el ieri la telefon şi acum aş vrea să-l şi văd.	I spoke with him on the telephone yesterday and today I would like to see him as well.

The principle restriction, then, upon *să* is that no other words may appear between it and the subjunctive it introduces. This is not true in the case of *că*.

	Am auzit că tu şi colegii tăi de la şcoală mergeţi mîine la munţi.	I've heard that you and your classmates are going to the mountains tomorrow.
but:	*Aş vrea să mergeţi mîine la munţi tu şi colegii tăi de la şcoală.*	I would like you and your classmates to go to the mountains tomorrow.

With *ca...să*, however, the original word order may be used:

Aş vrea ca tu şi colegii tăi de la şcoală să mergeţi mîine la munţi.

4.3 Subjunctive and indicative. Although no infallible rules can be provided for determining when a noun clause should be expressed with *că* plus indicative or *să* plus subjunctive, there is one basic guideline which is valid in most cases: the indicative reflects actions or states in the present or past which are real, that is, actions or states which are either occurring or have occurred. The subjunctive does not present a real action or state but rather the idea of an action or state. Compare the following pairs of sentences:

Ştiu că vine.	I know he is coming.
Vreau să vină.	I want him to come.

In these sentences the event introduced by *că* is undoubtedly occurring, whereas the event introduced by *să* is not. It is presented only as an idea or as a potential action. The same is true when the verb of the main clause is in a past tense.

Ştiam că vine.[5]	We knew he was coming.
Vroiam să vină.	We wanted him to come.

Era adevărat că venea.	It was true that he was coming.
Era preferabil să vină.	It was preferable for him to come.

Consider the two sentences *Imi convine că vine.* 'It suits me that he is coming.' and *Imi convine să vină.* 'It suits me for him to come.' In the first sentence it is clear that the subject is indeed on his way whereas in the second, we are only talking about the prospect of his coming; the sentence is neutral insofar as the reality of his coming is concerned.

At times, because of the meaning of the main verb, the difference in meaning between subjunctive and indicative is slight and dependent upon the degree of doubt which the speaker wishes to impart to the action or state expressed by the verb of the dependent clause. The verbs *a spera* and *a nu crede*, for example, take both *că* and *să* without a great deal of difference in meaning.

Sper că vine.	I hope he is coming.
Sper să vină.	I hope he comes or I am hoping for him to come.
Nu cred că vine.	I don't believe he is coming. (I don't believe in the reality of his coming.)
Nu cred să vină.	I don't believe in his coming. (I don't believe in the possibility of his coming.)

Often the tense of the verb of the main clause determines the choice between subjunctive and indicative. Certain verbs and verbal expressions such as *a plăcea, a-i conveni cuiva, e păcat, e bine,* etc. which normally take the indicative in the present and past tenses take the subjunctive in the conditional and contitional perfect tenses. Since the latter two tenses express an unreal or hypothetical action or state it is not surprising that the verb of the dependent clause should do so as well. Compare the following pairs of sentences:

E păcat că vine.	It is a shame he is coming.
A fost păcat că a venit.	It was a shame that he came.
Ar fi păcat să vină.	It would be a shame for him to come.
Ar fi fost păcat să vină (or: *să fi venit).*	It would have been a shame for him to have come (or: for him to come).

E bine că are timp.	It is good that he has time.
A fost bine că avea timp.	It was good that he had time.
Ar fi bine să aibă timp.	It would be good for him to have time.
Ar fi fost bine să fi avut timp (or: *să aibă timp).*	It would have been good for him to have had time (or: to have time).
Imi place că o face bine.	I am glad that he does it well.
Mi-a plăcut că a făcut-o bine.	I was glad that he did it well.
Mi-ar plăcea s-o facă bine.	I would like him to do it well.
Mi-ar fi plăcut s-o fi făcut (or: *s-o facă) bine.*	I would have liked him to have done it (or: to do it) well.

It must also be noted however that in such constructions the subjunctive can also be used with the present tense when a general statement is being made about an action or state which has not necessarily occurred.

Imi place s-o facă bine.	I like him to do it well.
E prostie să nu mănînci bine.	It is foolish for you not to eat well.
E bine să ai timp liber întotdeauna.	It is good to always have free time.

5.0 The following is a list of verbs and verbal expressions organized according to their use with *că* and *să*.

(a) subject clauses (section 1.2).

(1) expressions that take *că* in the present and past indicative, *să* in the conditional and conditional perfect and occasionally in the present indicative (see above 1.73):

e păcat	it's a shame
e interesant	it's interesting
e probabil	it's probable
e de mirat	it's amazing
e ciudat	it's strange
e de necrezut	it's incredible
e minunat	it's wonderful
e absurd	it's absurd
e bine	it's a good thing
e de-ajuns	it's enough
e posibil	it's possible

Examples:

E de-ajuns că înţelege.	It's enough that he understands.

A fost de-ajuns că a înţeles.	It was enough that he understood.
Ar fi de-ajuns să înţeleagă.	It would be enough for him to understand.
Ar fi fost de-ajuns să fi înţeles (or: *să înţeleagă).*	It would have been enough for him to have understood (or: for him to understand).
E de-ajuns să înţeleagă.	It's enough for him to understand.

(2) expressions that take only *că*.

e adevărat	it's true
e clar	it's clear
e evident	it's obvious

(3) expressions that take only *să*.

e imposibil
e preferabil
e de preferat

(4) impersonal reflexives with *că*.

se vede	one can see
se ştie	it is known
se crede	it is believed
se zice	it is said
se spune	it is said
se pare	it seems
se înţelege	it is understood

(5) impersonal reflexives with *că* or *să* depending on meaning.

se poate	it's possible
se cuvine	it's fitting

Examples:

Se cuvine că primeşte premiul.	It's fitting that he is receiving the prize.
Se cuvine să primească premiul.	It's fitting for him to receive the prize.

(6) impersonal verbs with dative taking *că* or *să*.

a-i conveni cuiva	to suit someone
Imi convine că o ştii.	It suits me that you know.
Imi convine s-o ştii.	It suits me for you to know.

(7) impersonal verbs with dative taking *că*.

a-i păsa cuiva	to matter to someone

a-i se pare cuiva to seem to someone

(8) impersonal verbs with dative taking *să*.

a-i veni cuiva to feel like

(b) object clauses (section 1.3).

(1) verbs that normally take *că*.

a vedea	to see	*a anunța*	to announce
a crede	to believe	*a asculta*	to listen
a ști	to know	*a auzi*	to hear
a se gîndi	to think	*a observa*	to observe, watch
a povesti	to relate	*a simți*	to feel
a prezice	to foretell	*a prevedea*	to foresee
a înțelege	to understand	*a presimți*	to foresee, have a premonition

(2) verbs that normally take *să*.

a vrea	to want	*a sfătui*	to advise
a ruga	to ask	*a condamna*	to condemn
a lăsa	to allow	*a destina*	to destine
a aștepta	to expect	*a forța*	to force
a prefera	to prefer	*a numi*	to appoint
a dori	to desire	*a alege*	to choose, elect
a putea	to be able	*a încerca*	to try

(3) verbs that take *că* and *să* depending on meaning.

	with *că*	with *să*
a zice	to say, or tell something	to tell somebody to do something
a spune	to say or tell something	to tell somebody to do something
a învăța	to teach or learn something	to learn or teach somebody to do something
a uita	to forget something	to forget to do something
a se aduce aminte	to remember something	to remember to do something
a aminti	to remember something	to remember to do something

a şti	to know something	to know how to do something
a spera	to hope that something is happening	to hope for something to happen

Examples:

I-am spus ieri că nu-i posibil.	I told him yesterday that it wasn't possible
I-am spus ieri să se ducă acasă.	I told him yesterday to go home.
El m-a învăţat că poezia e frumoasă.	He taught me that poetry is beautiful.
El m-a învăţat să cînt.	He taught me to sing.
Am uitat că este aici.	I forgot he was here.
Am uitat să sting luminile.	I forgot to turn out the lights.

EXERCISE 3. Rewrite the following sentences replacing the indirect object with a noun clause.

Model: *I-am povestit cazul profesorului.* *I-am povestit cazul cui era interesat să-l ştie.*

a. *Numai lui i-am dat o ţigară.*
b. *Vreau să trimit o scrisoare prietenului meu.*
c. *Nu ştiu dacă a explicat problema studenţilor.*
d. *Lui nu-i e frică de nimic.*
e. *Asta nu-i va plăcea nimănui.*

EXERCISE 4. Rewrite the following sentences replacing the prepositional object with a noun clause.

Model: *Se gîndea tot timpul la mama sa.* *Se gîndea tot timpul la cine îl iubeşte.*

a. *Scrisoarea aceasta e pentru tine.*
b. *Ce ştii tu despre problema aceasta.*
c. *Intotdeaună am fost prieten cu toţi.*
d. *A fost bătut de un om necunoscut.*
e. *Nu pot să cred nimic după toate acestea.*

EXERCISE 5. Rewrite the following sentences inverting the order of the object clause (direct or indirect) and verb, adding redundant pronouns wherever appropriate.

Model: *Am văzut pe cine l-am aşteptat.* *Pe cine l-am aşteptat l-am văzut.*

a. *Merele sînt bune şi am mîncat cîte am cumpărat.*

b. *Aş spune secretul oricui vrea să-l ştie.*
c. *Am sfătuit pe oricine am întîlnit să fie cinstit întotdeauna.*
d. *Sînt foarte multe cărţi aici aşa că poţi să iei pe oricare vrei.*
e. *Am recunoscut pe cîţi i-am văzut.*

EXERCISE 6. Rewrite the following sentences replacing *ca...să* with *să* making all other necessary changes in word order.

a. *E de preferat ca studenţii să lucreze un an la ţară.*
b. *Vreau ca tu şi fratele tău să veniţi mîine la mine.*
c. *Toţi sperăm ca examenele să fie uşoare.*
d. *E important ca numai el să organizeze excursia.*
e. *Mi-ar plăcea foarte mult ca studenţii să citească mai multe cărţi.*

EXERCISE 7. Rewrite the following sentences replacing *să* with *ca...să* making all other necessary changes in word order.

a. *Nu permit să meargă nimeni acasă.*
b. *Ar fi minunat să ne ajutaţi amîndoi.*
c. *Vă rog frumos să nu mai fumaţi nici dumneavoastră nici doamna.*
d. *Doctorul ne-a sfătuit să mergem eu şi cu toată familia la mare.*
e. *A fost absolut necesar să se întîlnească toţi studenţii de la facultate înainte de ora şase.*

EXERCISE 8. Fill in the blanks in the following sentences with *că* or *să*.

a. *Vreau* __________ *mă ajuţi.*
b. *N-am avut timp* __________ *merg la dentist.*
c. *Mi-a spus* __________ *nu putem să plecăm mîine.*
d. *E adevărat* __________ *vorbeşte mai bine decît ceilalţi.*
e. *Ar fi plăcut* __________ *mai stăm puţin.*
f. *Se ştie* __________ *vii dar nu se ştie cît stai.*
g. *Dacă doriţi* __________ *mai ramîneţi, puteţi.*
h. *Nu ştiu ce pot* __________ *fac acum.*
i. *Nu se poate* __________ *nu ştie ce am spus.*
j. *Trebuie* __________ *terminăm examenele înainte de a pleca la mare.*

EXERCISE 9. Rewrite the following sentences changing the present indicative into the conditional and making all other appropriate changes.

Model: *E bine că lucrezi. Ar fi bine să lucrezi.*

a. *E interesant că are haine noi.*
b. *E păcat că nu mai poate cînta.*

c. *Se poate că pleacă imediat.*
d. *Imi convine că pleacă imediat.*
e. *Iţi place că învaţă repede.*

EXERCISE 10. Rewrite the sentences of Exercise 9, changing them first into the simple past tense and then into the conditional perfect.

Model: *A fost bine că ai lucrat.* *Ar fi fost bine să fi lucrat*
(or: *Era bine că lucrai.)* (or: *să lucrezi).*

EXERCISE 11. In the following sentences insert any word or combination of words that may be appropriate between *să* and the subjunctive.

Model: *Trebui să spun ceva.* *Trebui să-ţi mai spun ceva.*

a. *Nu vreau să* __________ *văd.*
b. *E necesar să* __________ *oboseşti.*
c. *Ar fi bine să* __________ *dau pîna la urmă.*
d. *Nu mi-ar conveni să* __________ *scrii nici o scrisoare.*
e. *Am vrut să* __________ *ajut dar n-am fost în stare.*

EXERCISE 12. Translate.

a. I've never forgotten anyone I have liked. (two ways)
b. It would be better for him to talk to you.
c. I don't know anything about whoever was here yesterday.
d. When you come tomorrow I want you to bring your car.
e. You can't give anything to one who already has everything.
f. He taught me to sing and now he wants me to learn to dance.
g. I would like to know how to write better.
h. It would be interesting for him to meet the other students.
i. I write letters to anyone who writes to me. (two ways)
j. He advised me to try to find my brother.
k. I don't believe him to be a great man.
l. The policeman told him to go home.
m. It is not necessary for them to bring anything.
n. It would be a shame for him not to meet my sister.
o. I hope he doesn't forget to read my letter.

KEY TO EXERCISES

Exercise 1

a. *Cine vrea să rămînă poate să ne aştepte.*
b. *Cine ştie toate nu ştie nimic.*
c. *Ce-am acuma mă mulţumeşte.*
d. *Ce îmi spui nu inseamnă nimic.*
e. *Nu-i necesar să ne spună (el). Nu-i necesar ca el să ne spună.*
f. *E de preferat (e preferabil) să vorbim acum cu el.*
g. *Se crede că (tu) eşti din Bulgaria.*
h. *Ar fi absurd să te duci acasă acum.*
i. *E păcat că n-are bani.*
j. *Nu îmi pasă (mie) dacă manîncă sau nu.*
k. *Imi vine să cînt.*
l. *Mi-ar conveni să aducă el ţuica.*
m. *Ar fi preferabil (de preferat) să vorbin cu tine mai tîrziu.*
n. *Mi-e tot una dacă plătesc sau nu.*
o. *Imi place că îmi spui adevărul.*

Exercise 2. The following sentences are offered as possible examples of direct object clauses; the student, of course, should make up original ones.

a. *Vreau să mă duc la teatru.*
b. *Văd că n-ai terminat încă.*
c. *Nu credem să fi ajuns încă trenul.*
d. *Nu dorim să mîncăm nimic deocamdată.*
e. *Nu ne-a spus că bunica e bolnavă.*
f. *Mi-a povestit cum a venit în Statele Unite.*
g. *L-a întrebat de ce n-a putut să stea mai mult.*
h. *Nu ştiu să dansez.*
i. *M-a învăţat să recunosc pe oamenii necinstiţi.*
j. *Aştept să pornească racheta spre lună.*
k. *Am observat ce a făcut.*
l. *L-au ales să invite pe vecinii la banchet.*
m. *I-aţi anunţat (pe ei) cînd trebuie să se adune membrii clubului?*
n. *Am recomandat să nu iasă de la facultate.*
o. *Prefer să ne aducă berea acum.*

Exercise 3. The following sentences are possibilities only.

a. *Numai cui a vrut să fumeze i-am dat o ţigară.*
b. *Vreau să trimit o scrisoare cui aşteaptă de mult.*
c. *Nu ştiu dacă a explicat problema oricui n-a înţeles-o.*
d. *Cui are dreptate nu-i e frică de nimic.*
e. *Asta nu-i va plăcea cui n-a fost avizat dinainte.*

Exercise 4.

a. *Scrisoarea aceasta e pentru cine mi-a scris mie.*
b. *Ce ştii tu despre ce s-a întîmplat?*
c. *Intotdeaună am fost prieten cu cine a fost prieten cu mine.*
d. *A fost bătut de cine vroia să-i fure banii.*
e. *Nu pot să cred nimica după cît mi-ai povestit acum.*

Exercise 5.

a. *Merele sînt bune şi pe cîte le-am cumpărat le-am mîncat.*
b. *Oricui vrea să ştie secretul i l-aş spune.*
c. *Pe oricine l-am întîlnit l-am sfătuit să fie cinstit intotdeaună.*
d. *Sînt foarte multe cărţi aici şi pe oricare o vrei poţi s-o iei.*
e. *Pe cîţi i-am văzut i-am recunoscut.*

Exercise 6.

a. *E de preferat să lucreze studenţii un an la ţară.*
b. *Vreau să veniţi tu şi fratele tău mîine la mine.*
c. *Toţi sperăm să fie examenele uşoare.*
d. *E important să organizeze excursia numai el.*
e. *Mi-ar plăcea foarte mult să citească studenţii mai multe cărţi.*

Exercise 7.

a. *Nu permit ca nimeni să meargă acasă.*
b. *Ar fi minunat ca amîndoi să ne ajutaţi.*
c. *Vă rog frumos ca nici dumneavoastră nici doamna să nu mai fumaţi.*
d. *Doctorul ne-a sfătuit ca eu şi cu toată familia să mergem la mare.*
e. *A fost absolut necesar ca toţi studenţii de la facultate să se întîlnească înainte de ora şase.*

Exercise 8.

a. *să*
b. *să*
c. *că*
d. *că*
e. *să*
f. *că*
g. *să*
h. *să*
i. *să*
j. *să*

Exercise 9.

a. *Ar fi interesant să aibă haine noi.*
b. *Ar fi păcat să nu mai poată cînta.*
c. *S-ar putea să plece imediat.*

d. *Mi-ar conveni să plece (el) imediat.*
e. *Ţi-ar plăcea să înveţe repede.*

Exercise 10.

a. *A fost interesant că avea haine noi.*
Ar fi fost interesant să aibă (să fi avut) haine noi.

b. *Ar fost păcat că n-a mai putut cînta.*
Ar fi fost păcat să nu mai poată (să nu mai fi putut) cînta.

c. *Se putea că pleca imediat.*
S-ar fi putut să plece (să fi plecat) imediat.

d. *Imi convenea că pleca imediat.*
Mi-ar fi convenit să plece (să fi plecat) imediat.

e. *Iţi plăcea că a învăţat repede.*
Ţi-ar fi plăcut să înveţe (să fi învăţat) repede.

Exercise 11. The words given here are offered as possibilities only.

a. *Nu vreau să te mai văd.*
b. *E necesar să nu te prea oboseşti.*
c. *Ar fi bine să ţi-o şi dau pînă la urmă.*
d. *Nu mi-ar conveni să-mi mai scrii nici o scrisoare.*
e. *Am vrut să-l cam ajut dar n am fost în stare.*

Exercise 12.

a. *N-am uitat niciodată pe cine am iubit. Pe cine l-am iubit nu l-am uitat niciodată.*
b. *Ar fi mai bine sa vorbească cu tine.*
c. *Nu ştiu nimic despre cine a fost aici ieri.*
d. *Cînd vii mîine vreau să aduci maşina.*
e. *Nu poţi să dai nimic cui deja are totul. Cui deja are totul nu poţi să-i dai nimic.*
f. *M-a învăţat să cînt şi acuma vrea să învăţ sa dansez.*
g. *Aş vrea să ştiu să scriu mai bine.*
h. *Ar fi interesant să-i cunoască (ca el să cunoască) pe ceilalţi studenţi.*
i. *Scriu scrisori cui îmi scrie mie. Cui îmi scrie mie îi scriu (şi eu) scrisori.*
j. *M-a sfătuit să încerc să-mi gasesc fratele.*
k. *Nu cred să fie un om mare.*
l. *Miliţianul i-a spus să se ducă acasă.*
m. *Nu e necesar să aducă (ei) nimic.*
n. *Ar fi păcat să nu-mi cunoască (ca el să nu-mi cunoască) sora.*
o. *Sper să nu uite să-mi citească scrisoarea.*

FOOTNOTES

1. It can, of course, be argues that these clauses are logical direct objects of the reflexive verbs and should be treated as such. I see no particular advantage in doing so and have therefore classified them according to formal structural criteria.

2. *a şti că* means 'to know something is true' (*ştiu că a venit*) and should be distinguished from *a şti să* which means 'to know how to do something' (*ştiu să dansez*). A list of similar verbs is provided in section 5 (b) (3).

3. *a întreba* means 'to ask for information' (*m-a întrebat cît e ceasul*); *a ruga* means 'to ask someone to do something' (*vă rog să nu fumaţi*). A third verb, *a cere*, means 'to ask (someone) for something' (*mi-a cerut o ţigara*). Of the three, only *a cere* takes an indirect object.

4. *a învăţa că* means both 'to teach' and 'to learn that something is true' (*m-a învăţat că poezia e frumoasă; Am învăţat că poezia e frumoasă*); *a învăţa să* means 'to teach (someone)' or 'to learn to do something' (*M-a învăţat să dansez; Am învăţat să dansez*). A list of similar verbs is presented in section 5 (b) (3).

5. It is seldom necessary in Romanian to observe the sequence of tenses. Contrary to normal English usage the verb of the dependent clause in Romanian is often in the present tense regardless of the tense used in the main clause. Maintenance of tense sequence is generally obligatory only when failure to do so would result in ambiguity, or a meaning different from the one intended.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Gramatica limbii române. Editura Academiei Republicii Populare Române, vols. I and II, 1954. Standard grammatical reference work. Useful and complete.

Iordan, Iorgu. *Limba română contemporană.* Bucharest, Editura Ministrului Invăţămîntului, 1956.

Limba română, fonetica-vocabular-gramatică. Editura Academiei Republicii Populare Române.

Nicolescu, Aurel. *Problema de sintaxă a propoziţiei.* Bucharest, Editura Stiinţifica, 1970.

Şerban, Vasile. *Sintaxa limbii române, curs practic.* Second edition. Bucharest, Editura Didactică şi Pedagogică, 1970. Complete, well-written, traditional exposition of Romanian syntax. Useful as a reference grammar.

ROMANIAN GRAMMAR PAMPHLETS

James E. Augerot, Editor

IX. ADVERB CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN

by

James Algeo

This work was developed pursuant to a contract between
the U.S. Office of Education and the Center for Applied Linguistics

(OEC-0-72-1588)

1973

PREFACE

These Romanian grammar pamphlets grew out of meetings held at the American Council of Learned Societies for the development of materials for Eastern European languages and subsequent funding by the U.S. Office of Education through the Center for Applied Linguistics. Priorities for language materials were established by polling most of those concerned with the teaching of Romanian in the United States. It was decided that, among other things, a series of grammar pamphlets, each treating specific problems and providing exercises, was the best way of attacking the shortage of materials for students beyond the first-year manuals. The pamphlets were thought useful because of the flexibility they would offer to a field in which teaching philosophies differed greatly from institution to institution and student needs beyond the first year course are also very disparate. The teacher of Romanian will have the opportunity to tailor his course to his students' needs using any number of the pamphlets in whatever order he determines to be most fruitful. Each pamphlet is basically independent of all the others, although there is some cross reference and the series has been arranged in an order suggesting the best use, all other things being equal. I would suggest that the teacher might find the first 3 pamphlets useful even before the first year of Romanian is completed. The remainder could very well serve as companion units to a second-year course that concentrates on readings and a refinement of the students' appreciation of finer points of Romanian grammar and expression. Eventually we hope to see more materials for advanced courses including a social science reader, more grammar pamphlets and a reference grammar, as well as a good dictionary.

Each pamphlet contains exercises appropriate to the materials and a brief bibliography for the enterprising student who wants to begin to make a serious study of the language.

The Editor takes full responsibility for the arrangement and the typography of the series. The particular theoretical approach and content of

each pamphlet varies considerably, however, and the individual authors remain responsible in these areas. We felt that this was not in any way detrimental in relation to the goals of the series. We included two of the pamphlets in the original Romanian. We realize that these will be somewhat difficult for the less advanced student, but he must begin to make the transition some time and these will help him to that end.

I thank Ms. Dorothy Rapp of the Center for Applied Linguistics for her always pleasant logistical assistance and to Ms. Kathleen Murphy, the project Secretary and in fact, although not in title, Assistant Editor, I owe a great deal. Professor Mircea Borcilă of the University of Cluj has been a constant and delightful consultant for things Romanian.

The titles and authors of the ten pamphlets in the recommended order are as follows:

I. SOME ROMANIAN DETERMINERS by Frederick B. Agard
II. ROMANIAN INTONATION AND STRESS by Robert L. Rankin
III. THE CONJUGATION OF THE ROMANIAN VERB by James E. Augerot
IV. PREPOSITIONS by Cornel Capuşan
V. POSSESSIVE AND DATIVE CONSTRUCTIONS IN ROMANIAN by Frederick B. Agard
VI. PRONUME ŞI FORME ENCLITICE by Anca Belchiţă Hartular
VII. PATTERNS OF SYNTAX IN ROMANIAN by Robert L. Rankin
VIII. NOUN CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN by James Algeo
IX. ADVERB CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN by James Algeo
X. STRUCTURA ETIMOLOGICĂ A VOCABULARULUI ROMÂNESC by Theodor Hristea

James E. Augerot
Editor
University of Washington
May 15, 1973

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface..i

Table of Contents..iii

1.0 Introduction...1

1.1 Modification of verbs..................................1

1.2 Modification of adjectives and adverbs.................2

2.0 Adverb clauses...4

2.1 Clauses of time..4

Exercise 1...5

2.2 Clauses of place.......................................6

Exercises 2-3..7

2.3 Clauses of manner......................................7

Exercises 4-5..9

2.4 Clauses of cause.......................................10

2.5 Clauses of purpose.....................................11

Exercise 6...12

2.6 Clauses of result......................................12

Exercises 7-8..13

2.7 Clauses of condition and concession....................14

Exercises 9-11...21

Exercises 12-13..27

2.8 Clauses of opposition, exception, and cumulative circumstance....27

Exercises 14-15..29

2.9 Comparison of adjectives and adverbs...................30

Exercise 16..32

Review Exercise..33

Exercise Key...34

Bibliography...41

ADVERB CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN

1.0 An adverb clause is a dependent clause which, within a sentence, functions as an adverb by modifying, like a simple adverb, a verb, adjective or other adverb.

Modification of verb: He was working *when I saw him last.*
Modification of adjective: My brother is as tall *as you are.*
Modification of adverb: He speaks better *than I write.*

1.1 MODIFICATION OF VERBS. Simple adverbs can provide information about the time, place, manner, or other attendant circumstances in which an action or state occurs. Consider, for example, the various contexts in which the verb *sleep* can occur:

Time: He slept *all night.*
Place: He slept *there.*
Manner: He slept *soundly.*
Concession: He slept *nevertheless.*

Verbs can also be modified by prepositional phrases that are adverbial in nature. A prepositional phrase with adverbial meaning can provide finer nuances of meaning as well as more detailed information about a verb than simple adverbs:

Time: He slept *until the early hours of morning.*
Place: He slept *under the old walnut tree.*
Manner: He slept *with his feet sticking out from under the covers.*
Purpose: He slept *in order to regain his strength.*
Cause: He slept *out of sheer fatigue.*
Concession: He slept *in spite of all his difficulties.*

Like adverb phrases, adverb clauses modify verbs in a variety of ways. In this pamphlet the following types of clauses will be covered:

Time: *When he comes* I will tell you.

Place: *Wherever you go* I will follow you.

Manner: He talks to you *just as he talks to everybody.*

Cause: *Since he was tired* he stopped to rest.

Purpose: He stole the money *in order to feed his dogs.*

Result: He tried so hard *that he became ill.*

Condition: *If you help me today,* I will help you tomorrow.

Concession: *Although he worked very hard,* he remained poor.

In the discussion of these clauses in Romanian, three additional clause types will be included which in English are ordinarily expressed in other ways: clauses of *opposition, exception,* and *cumulative circumstances.*

1.2 MODIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS. Adverbial modification of adjectives and other adverbs occurs principally in the form of comparisons of equality or inequality as in the following examples:

(a) Adjectives

equality: He is not so old *as you think.*

inequality: He is older *than you think.*

(b) Adverbs

equality: He writes as well *as I speak.*

inequality: He writes better *than I speak.*

1.21 The following sentences exemplify all the above sentence types in Romanian:[1]

Time: *Cînd m-a văzut a fugit.* When he saw me he ran away.

---

[1] This entire breakdown of adverb clauses according to the part of speech they modify may be debatable at some points since it is not often clear whether an adverb clause modifies a verb, adverb, adjective or an entire clause. My purpose here, however, is simply to illustrate and provide guidelines for usage and not to consume space discussing problems of categorization -- and for this the analysis I have settled on seems adequate.

Place: *A locuit unde s-a născut.*
He lived where he was born.

Manner: *Trăieşte aşa cum a trăit tatăl său.*
He lives just as his father lived.

Cause: *Fiindcă am venit tîrziu, n-am găsit mîncare.*
Since I came late I didn't find anything to eat.

Purpose: *I-am trimis bani, ca să vină mai repede.*
I sent him money so that he would come more quickly.

Result: *Aşa tare rîde, încît toată lumea rîde cu el.*
He laughs so hard that everyone laughs with him.

Condition: *Dacă lucrezi, te plătesc.*
If you work they will pay you.

Concession: *Deşi lucrezi, nu cîştigi nimic.*
Even though you work you don't earn anything.

Opposition: *In loc să plece, a mai stat trei zile.*
Instead of leaving he stayed three more days.

Exception: *Nu vrea nimic altceva, decît să fie bogat.*
He wants nothing else but to be rich.

Cumulative Circumstance: *Inafară că e tîrziu, trebuie să mă scol foarte devreme.*
Besides being late I have to get up very early.

Comparison:
adjective: *El e mai inteligent decît am crezut.*
He is more intelligent than I thought.

adverb: *Fata a recitat mai bine decît ceilalţi au prezis.*
The girl recited better than the others had predicted.

In the following pages each of the above categories will be discussed and exemplified in as much detail as appears necessary for the speaker of English.

2.0 Adverb clauses are introduced by conjunctions or by adverbs functioning as conjunctions such as *deşi* 'although', *fiindcă* 'since', *cînd* 'when', *îndată ce* 'as soon as', etc. The various types of adverb clause to be studied will be classified according to the conjunction (or conjunctive adverb) that introduces them.

2.1 CLAUSES OF TIME. Clauses of time, by and large, present few special problems for the speaker of English. They are introduced by the following conjunctions:[2]

cînd	when
tot timpul cît	as long as (i.e. meaning *for whatever length of time* not *provided that*)
cît	as long as
cum	as long as
îndată ce	as soon as
înainte (ca) să	before (More common is *înainte de* plus infinitive: *înainte de-a veni...*)
pîna să	until
pîna cînd	until
pîna	until
după ce	after
imediat ce	as soon as
de cînd	since (temporal only)
de cîte ori	whenever

Examples:

Cînd războiul s-a terminat el a venit acasă.

When the war was over he came home.

Tot timpul cît vei fi plecat iţi voi scrie în fiecare zi.

As long as you're gone, I'll write to you every day.

---

[2] Few of the list of conjunctions given here will be exhaustive but since those conjunctions included are the most commonly used in speech and in writing the lists provided should be more than adequate.

Trebuie să fii cuminte cît stai la mine.
As long as you are at my house you have to behave.

Cum i-e foame copilului, cum începe să plîngă.
As soon as the baby is hungry, he begins to cry.

Ar fi bine să plecăm înainte ca profesorii de la facultate să vină.
Ar fi bine să plecam inainte să vină profesorii de la facultate.
It would be better for us to leave before the professors from the university get here.

Nu plecăm pînă să vină el. (pop.)
Nu plecăm pînă cînd (nu)[3] *vine el.*
Nu plecăm pînă (nu)[3] *vine el.*
We aren't leaving until he comes.

De cînd l-am cunoscut nu mi-a plăcut.
Since I met him I haven't liked him.

S-a întîmplat accidentul după ce a pornit trenul.
The accident happened after the train pulled out.

Te rog să-mi dai un telefon îndată ce ajungi la Bucureşti.
Please call me as soon as you arrive in Bucharest.

Exercise 1. Complete the following sentences with an adverb clause.

(a) *Nu l-am văzut de cînd* ________________.
(b) *A început războiul după* ________________.
(c) *Fata a dansat cît*____________________.
(d) *De cîte ori a venit la mine*____________.
(e) *Cum ajungi acasă*_____________________.

---

[3] Note the optional use of the negative particle *nu*. It is commonly used with *pînă* and *pînă cînd* without altering the original meaning of the sentence.

(f) *Şi-a uitat pălăria cînd*__________________.

(g) *O să cumpăr o camaşă nouă îndată*__________.

(h) *A plîns tot timpul*______________________.

(i) *Nu manînc pînă*_________________________.

(j) *Am început să conversăm după*_____________.

(k) *A pornit trenul imediat*__________________.

(l) *A înţeles filmul cînd*____________________.

(m) *N-a început cheful pînă*__________________.

(n) *S-a îmbolnăvit îndată*____________________.

(o) *M-a insultat de cîte ori*__________________.

2.2 CLAUSES OF PLACE. The most frequently used conjunction for adverb clauses of place is, of course, *unde* and its derivatives. Like time clauses, clauses of place present no particular difficulty for the speaker of English.

unde	where
de unde	from where
pe unde	around where, by the route that
de pe unde	from around where
oriunde	anywhere

Examples:

Omul a rămas unde l-am lăsat.

The man remained where I left him.

A venit de unde au venit ceilalţi.

He has come from where the other came.

Eu şi el am venit de la Tîrgu Mureş pînă la Cluj, dar el n-a venit pe unde am venit eu.

He and I came from Tirgu Mures to Cluj, but he didn't come by the same route that I did.

Cred că mai locuieşte pe unde l-am văzut ultima dată.

I think he still lives around where I saw him the last time.

El a început călătoria cam de pe unde am trecut eu alaltăieri.
He began his trip around the place that I passed through yesterday.

Te voi găsi oriunde mergi.
I'll find you wherever you go.

Exercise 2. Finish the following sentences.

(a) *L-a căutat pe prietenul lui unde*________________.
(b) *El zice că vine de pe unde*________________.
(c) *A intrat în padure pe unde*________________.
(d) *Barca a plecat de pe unde*________________.
(e) *Şi-a găsit prieteni oriunde*________________.

Exercise 3. Translate the following sentences.

(a) Wherever the boy goes the dog goes as well.
(b) I looked for the book around where I thought I had left it.
(c) His house used to be where the hospital is now.
(d) I saw him in the middle of the river around where the water is deep, and he told me that he had begun swimming from around where the bridge used to be.
(e) The bus left from where it always leaves.

2.3 CLAUSES OF MANNER. Clauses of manner can be subdivided into two types: *real* and *hypothetical*. Real clauses describe the manner in which something occurs by likening it or relating it somehow to another real action or state; hypothetical clauses, similarly, tell how something occurs by relating or likening it to another event but in this case the event, being imaginative or speculative in nature, has not occurred. We shall further analyze these below.

real:	hypothetical:
Nu cîntă nimeni cum cîntă el.	*A cîntat ca şi cum era beat.*
No one sings as he sings.	He sang as if he were drunk.

The conditions most commonly used in real and hypothetical constructions are the following:

(a) real:

cum	as, just as, in the same way that
după cum	as, in accordance with, according to the way that
fără să	without
precum	as, just as
aşa cum	just as, in the same way that
pe măsura ce	as, (at the rate that)

(b) hypothetical:

ca şi cum	as if
ca şi cînd	as if
de parcă	as if
întocmai cum	just as if

Examples:

(a) real:

Totul s-a întîmplat cum a prezis el.
Everything happened as he predicted.

Am făcut-o după cum mi-a explicat tată şi am reuşit.
I did it according to the way my father explained it and I succeeded.

A recitat poezia la perfecţie precum l-a învăţat învaţătoarea.
He recited the poetry perfectly just as the teacher had taught him.

Prietenul lui a plecat fără să-i spună un cuvînt.
His friend left without saying a word to him.

Pe măsura ce pierdem libertăţile devenim mai nefericiţi.
As (at the rate that) we lose our liberties we become ever unhappier.

După zece ani l-am găsit aşa cum l-am lăsat: beat.
After ten years I found him just as I had left him: drunk.

(b) hypothetical:

A început să plîngă ca şi cum i-ar fi murit prietenul cel mai bun.
He began to weep as if his best friend had died.

(Note: *ca şi cum* and *ca şi cînd* are synonymous, although the former is by far the more common of the two.)

Mergea pe stradă cîntînd de parcă era omul cel mai fericit din lume.
He went down the street singing as if he were the happiest man in the world.

M-a salutat întocmai cum mi-era prietenul cel mai bun.
He greeted me as if he were my best friend.

EXERCISE 4. Complete the following sentences:

(a) *El cîntă cum* __________.
(b) *Pe măsura ce soseau trenurile* __________.
(c) *Caut casa pe aici după cum* __________.
(d) *A strigat ca şi cum* __________.
(e) *S-a supărat tare pe mine de parcă* __________.
(f) *A citit trei cărţi în şir fără* __________.
(g) *Profesorul a ghicit ce am vrut să spun înctocmai cum* __________.
(h) *Nevasta mea găteşte aşa cum* __________.
(i) *Şi imediat a adormit de parcă* ___ ______.
(j) *E un om cinstit şi trăieşte precum* __________.

EXERCISE 5. Translate:

(a) I want you to do just as I tell you.

(b) He talked as if he were frightened.

(c) The thief entered the room without waking me.

(d) As night fell he became sadder and sadder.

(e) He did everything according to the way I explained it.

2.4 CLAUSES OF CAUSE. Causal clauses provide information as to the motivation of cause of the action or state of the main clause. Although there are several conjunctions that may introduce causal constructions, all of them are nearly equivalent in meaning, corresponding to the English *since* or *because*.

fiindcă
deoarece
intrucît
din cauza că
din pricina că
de vreme ce
din moment ce
o dată ce
cum

Examples:

Fiindcă era noapte, luminile toate erau aprinse.
Since it was nighttime all the lights were on.

Deoarece i-am scris săptămîna trecută, nu-i mai scriu acum.
Since I wrote to him last week, I'm not writing to him now.

Intrucît cunoşti cazul mai bine ca mine, nu voi face observaţii.
Since you know the case better than, I'm not going to make any comments.

Nimeni n-a vorbit cu el, din pricina că e antipatic.
No one spoke to him because he is unpleasant.

O dată ce ştii soluţia problemei, de ce nu mi-o spui şi mie.
Since you know the answer to the problem, why don't you tell it to me?

Cum a plecat de vreme, nu l-a cunoscut pe ambasador.
Since he left early, he didn't meet the ambassador.

Practice writing original sentences using each of the causal conjunctions.

2.5 CLAUSES OF PURPOSE. Purpose clauses explain the goal of a given action. They are most frequently introduced in Romanian by the conjunctions *să*, *ca să*, or occasionally, by *pentru ca să* and are equivalent to the English conjunctions *to*, *in order to*, *so*, or *so that*.

Am venit să te vad.
I've come to see you.

Strîng banii (pentru) ca să am destui la vară.
I'm saving my money in order to have enough this Summer.

It is important to point out the difference between *ca să* in clauses of purpose and *ca...să* which introduces noun clauses.[4] In the case of the latter, *ca* and *să* must always be spearated by some other element in the sentence, whereas the former, *ca să* may or may not be:

adverb clause:	*Am venit să te văd.*	I've come to see you.
noun clause:	*Am vrut să te văd.*	I wanted to see you.
adverb clause:	*Am venit ca să te văd.*	I came in order to see you.
adverb clause:	*Am venit ca să mă vadă.*	I came so that he could see me.
noun clause:	*Am vrut ca el să mă vadă.*	I wanted him to see me.

Also: *Am venit ca el să mă vadă.* I came so that he could see me.
But not: **Am vrut ca să mă vadă.*

An important difference between *să* and *ca să*, in adverb clauses, is that the former does not ordinarily begin a sentence.

A călătorit de foarte departe să te vadă.
He has traveled from far away to see you.

---

[4] For a discussion of *ca...să* in noun clauses see pamphlet no. VIII in this series, section 1.7.

A călătorit de foarte departe ca să te vadă.
He has traveled from far away in order to see you.

Ca să te vadă, a călătorit de foarte departe.

But not: **Să te vadă, a călătorit de foarte departe.*

When there is a change of subject from the main to the dependent clause *să* cannot be used.

Lucrez să cîştig bani.
I work to earn money.

Lucrez ca să cîştig bani.
I work in order to earn money.

Lucrez ca să poată învăţa copiii.
I work so that my children can study.

But not: **Lucrez să poată învăţa copiii.*

EXERCISE 6.

(a) He didn't eat today so that he could come home earlier.
(b) I turned out the lights so that he wouldn't see me.
(c) He went out to buy a newspaper.
(d) I left the room so that you could be alone.
(e) He sent his son to school so that he would learn something.

2.6 CLAUSES OF RESULT. Adverb clauses that show the result of a given action or state are, like most adverb clauses, headed by a conjunction. Very often, however, this conjunction has a correlative conjunction in the main clause. The most common conjunctions are *ca* and *de* and a third, *încît (să)* is used in more formal style. The most frequently used correlatives are *aşa, atît, în aşa fel* and the more formal *astfel.*

A lucrat de s-a omorît.
He worked enough to kill himself.

Atît a vorbit, că toată lumea s-a plictisit de el.
He talked so much that everyone became bored with him.

A fost necesar să se realizeze astfel proiectul, încît să nu trebuiască să se corecteze mai tîrziu.
It was necessary to carry out the project in such a way that it wouldn't have to be corrected later.

Aşa urît a vorbit că nici n-am putut să răspund.
He spoke so rudely that I couldn't even answer.

Atît de bine a recitat poezia, de a plîns toată lumea.
He recited the poetry so well that everyone wept.

Often the conjunction and its correlative can go together to form a new conjunction:

In momentul cel mai greu a făcut un efort mare aşa că a reuşit.
At the most difficult moment he made a great effort and so was successful.

Totul a fost organizat astfel încît n-am avut nevoie să schimb nimic.
Everything was organized in such a way that I didn't need to change anything.

Note that *astfel* can be replaced by *în aşa fel*, especially in the spoken language:

Totul a fost organizat în aşa fel încît...

Also, *încît*, when introducing an action or state which has not yet occurred, must be followed by *să* plus subjunctive:

Totul va fi organizat în aşa fel încît să nu am nevoie...

EXERCISE 7. Complete the following:

(a) *M-am obosit de* ____________.

(b) *Atît o iubea pe soţia sa,* ____________.

(c) *Aşa mi-e scîrbă de şerpi,* ____________.

(d) *Toată ziua s-a purtat în aşa fel* ____________.

(e) *Aşa mult a cîştigat,* ____________.

EXERCISE 8. Translate:

(a) He laughed so hard that he fell down.

(b) You must tell him in such a way that he doesn't get angry.

(c) He worked so hard when he was young that he was often ill.

(d) I liked the film so much that I saw it three times.

(e) I talked so much last night that I can't talk today at all.

2.7 CLAUSES OF CONDITION AND CONCESSION. Conditional clauses (those beginning with *if*) and concessive clauses (those beginning with *although*, *even if*, etc.) share a good many structural and semantic similarities in both Englist and Romanian. In Romanian they present certain problems (for the speaker of English) that should be discussed.

By definition all conditional sentences such as

(a) If I had known it was going to rain I would have brought an umbrella.

(b) If it rains the flowers grow.

are hypothetical since the truth value or reality of the main clause is dependent upon the reality of the action or state of the *if* clause. In (a) above the *if* clause introduces an event which is clearly unreal and in (b) the reality of the proposition *it rains* is uncertain at best, since no reference is made to a specific event.

Concessive clauses, on the other hand, may be either real as in

(c) Although I stayed up all night I can't sleep today.

or unreal as in

(d) Even if I had stayed up all night (which I didn't) I wouldn't be able to sleep today.

Conditional and concessive clauses may be constructed with nearly any tense in Romanian. Note the following examples:

(a) present

Dacă ştii răspunsul, trebuie să-l spui mie.
If you know the answer you must tell it to me.

Deşi ştii răspunsul, nu mi-l spui.
Even though you know the answer you won't tell it to me.

(b) past

Dacă făcea timp frumos, întotdeaună mergeam la mare.
If the weather was good we always used to go to the ocean.

Dacă a plouat, Ion n-a ieşit din casă.
If it has rained John hasn't left the house.

Chiar dacă făcea timp frumos, nu mergeam la mare niciodată.
Even if the weather was good we never used to go to the ocean.

Deşi a plouat, Ion a ieşit din casă.
Even though it has rained John has left the house.

(c) future

Dacă el va veni, eu voi rămîne.
If he is coming I am staying.

Deşi va veni, eu nu voi rămîne.
Even though he is coming I'm not staying.

(d) conditional

Dacă aş avea timp, aş merge la munţi.
If I had time I would go to the mountains.

Chiar dacă aş avea timp, n-aş merge la munţi.
Even if I had time I wouldn't go to the mountains.

(e) conditional perfect

Dacă aş fi văzut filmul, n-aş fi venit acasă la ora şase.
If I had seen the film I wouldn't have come home at six.

Chiar dacă aş fi văzut filmul, aş fi venit acasă la ora şase.
Even if I had seen the film I would have come home at six.

In certain cases, of course, it is not uncommon for different combinations of tenses to be used.

(a) past-future

Dacă a venit, o să-l văd.
If he has come I'll see him.

Deşi a venit, n-o să-l văd.
Even though he has come I won't see him.

(b) past-present

Dacă a plouat, străzile sînt ude.
If it has rained the streets are wet.

Deşi a plouat, străzile nu sînt ude.
Even though it has rained the streets aren't wet.

(c) present-future

Dacă are timp (acum), o să vină.
If he has time (now) he will come.

Deşi are timp (acum), n-o să vină.
Even though he has time he won't come.

The main source of difficulty with these constructions arises from the various alternate means the speaker of Romanian has at his command to express conditional and concessive ideas. This is especially true in the case of the future, conditional and conditional perfect.

(a) present instead of future *(va veni = vine)*

Dacă vine mîine, o să-l văd.
If he comes tomorrow I'll see him.

Chiar dacă }
} *vine mîine, n-o să-l văd.*
Deşi }

Even if he comes }
} tomorrow I won't see him.
Even though he's coming }

(b) imperfect instead of conditional perfect *(ar fi venit = venea)*

Dacă ar fi mers mai tîrziu, nu te-ar fi văzut.
Dacă mergea mai tîrziu, nu te vedea.
If he had gone later he wouldn't have seen you.

Chiar dacă ar fi mers mai tîrziu, nu te-ar fi văzut.
Chiar dacă mergea mai tîrziu, nu te vedea.
Even if he had gone later he wouldn't have seen you.

(c) past subjunctive instead of conditional perfect in dependent clause.

Dacă ar fi mers mai tîrziu, nu te-ar fi văzut.
Să fi mers mai tîrziu, nu te-ar fi văzut.

Chiar dacă ar fi mers, nu te-ar fi văzut.
Chiar să fi mers, nu te-ar fi văzut.

2.71 THE CONDITIONAL CLAUSE. Conditional clauses provide the requirement or condition necessary for the realization of an action or state. Strictly speaking this means that the verb of the independent clause cannot denote an event that has clearly occurred, and that the *if* clause is always hypothetical.

There are sentences in Romanian and in English which are conditional in form but not meaning. Such sentences as *Dacă a venit, nu l-am văzut.*

'If he has come I haven't seen him' do not meet the semantic criterion for a conditional sentence in that the realization of the independent clause is not contingent upon the action of the dependent clause.

The most commonly used conjunctions are the following:

dacă	if
numai dacă	only if
cu condiţia să	on the condition that
măcar să	if only
de	if only

Of these conjunctions *dacă* is clearly the most common and occurs with a greater number of tenses.

(a) *dacă* with past tense: With the past tenses the hypothetical event referred to may be past or, in the case of the imperfect, it may denote a conditional perfect idea of an event that has not occurred and cannot occur.

(1) hypothetical past events. In these sentences the independent clause may contain a verb in nearly any tense, especially past, present or future.

Dacă a mîncat deja, s-a şi culcat.
If he has eaten already he has gone to bed too.

Dacă m-a văzut, ştie că sînt aici.
If he has seen me he knows I am here.

Dacă a plecat şi el, o să mă supăr.
If he has left too, I'm going to get angry.

(2) hypothetical future. Sentences introducing a verb in the present tense in the *if*-clause may commonly have in the independent clause a verb in the present or future tense.

Dacă este bolnav, e şi prost dispus.
If he is sick he is also in a bad mood.

Dacă are banii, o să-ţi dea.
If he has the money he will give it to you.

(3) hypothetical future: Sentences introducing a verb in the future tense in the *if*-clause are usually, though not necessarily, accompanied in the main clause by a verb also in the future.

Dacă va explica problema, o să ţi-o explice astăzi.
If he is going to explain the problem he will explain it to you today.

Dacă va veni preşedintele la banchet, trebuie să mergem noi toţi.
If the president is going to come to the banquet we must all go.

(4) hypothetical imperfect: Conditional sentences with the verb of the *if*-clause in the past imperfect, if referring to a general fact in the past, usually have an imperfect in the main clause as well. In such cases *cînd* is often used in place of *dacă*.

Cînd eram copii, dacă nu mergeam la şcoală, ne duceam la rîu să facem baie.
When we were children, if we didn't go to school, we went swimming in the river.

(5) alternate meanings of the present and imperfect tenses: As mentioned above, the present tense often has a future meaning in conditional clauses and the imperfect often has a conditional perfect meaning.

Dacă plouă (va ploua) mîine, nu mă duc la şcoală.
If it rains tomorrow I won't have to go to school.

Dacă ploua (ar fi plouat) ieri, nu ma duceam (aş fi dus) la şcoală.
If it had rained yesterday I wouldn't have gone to school.

(6) less probable future events: The conditional tense is used to

denote conditions that may occur in the future but which are seen as less likely to occur than those expressed with the future or present.

Dacă mi-ar spune asta mie, m-aş supăra.
If he said that to me I would get angry.

Dacă aş ştie tot ce ştie el, aş fi fericit.
If I knew everything he knows I would be happy.

(7) conditions contrary-to-fact: Conditions that express events either that did not occur in the past or their hypothetical consequences are expressed by the conditional perfect.

Dacă mi-ar fi spus asta mie, m-aş fi suparat.
If he had said that to me I would have gotten angry.

Dacă aş fi stiut tot ce stia el, aş fi fost fericit.
If I had known everything he knew I would have been happy.

(b) *numai dacă:* More intensive than *dacă*, *numai dacă* explicitly states that the event of the main clause occurs *if and only if* the event of the *if*-clause occurs. *Numai dacă* can be used with the same tenses as *dacă* and can replace it in all the above sentences.

Trenul opreşte aici, numai dacă este vreun pasager care vrea să coboare.
The train stops here only if there is some passenger that wants to get off.

(c) *de:* *De* is used quite commonly as a conditional conjunction in popular speech with the conditional and conditional perfect.

De-ar fi timp frumos, aş merge la plajă.
If the weather were good I would go to the beach.

De-aş avea bani, aş mînca întotdeauna la restaurante bune.
If I had money I would always eat in good restaurants.

De m-ai fi avizat dinainte, n-aş fi făcut greşeala.
If you had warned me ahead of time I wouldn't have made the mistake.

(d) *cu condiţia să:* Similar in meaning to *numai dacă*, *cu condiţia să* introduces conditions with a future meaning.

Merg cu voi, cu condiţia să ne înapoiem înainte de ora şase.
I'll go with you on the condition that we come back before six o'clock.

(e) tense combinations in contrary-to-fact sentences: It has been pointed out that three different tenses can be used to form the *if*-clause of a contrary-to-fact sentence (the conditional perfect, the imperfect and the perfect subjunctive) and two may be used in the main clause (the conditional perfect and the imperfect). It is also important to bear in mind that any combination of these tenses is permissable. Therefore any contrary-to-fact condition may be expressed in one of six ways (all mean 'If I had known, I would have told you.'):

Dacă aş fi ştiut, ţi-aş fi spus.
Dacă ştiam, ţi-aş fi spus.
Dacă aş fi ştiut, îţi spuneam.
Dacă ştiam, îţi spuneam.
Să fi ştiut, îţi spuneam.
Să fi ştiut, ţi-aş fi spus.

EXERCISE 9. In the following sentences change the present tense to the conditional and then again to the conditional perfect.

Model: *Dacă plouă, nu ies afară.*
1. *Dacă (de) ar ploua, n-aş ieşi afară.*
2. *Dacă (de) ar fi plouat, n-aş fi ieşit afară.*

(a) *Dacă vrei, ai timp.*
(b) *Dacă soseşte trenul, o să coboare pasagerii.*
(c) *Dacă vrei, putem să plecăm mai devreme.*

(d) *Dacă el ştie, ştiu şi ceilalţi.*

(e) *Dacă vine tîrziu, nu l-aştept.*

EXERCISE 10. Rewrite the following sentences twice, using first the perfect subjunctive and then the imperfect in place of the conditional perfect.

Model:

Dacă ar fi spus ceva înainte, nu m-aş fi supărat.

{ *Să fi spus ceva înainte, nu m-aş fi supărat.*

{ *Dacă spunea ceva înainte, nu mă supăram.*

(a) *Dacă aş fi fost in locul lui, aş fi făcut acelaşi lucru.*

(b) *El ar fi fost de acord cu mine, dacă aş fi insistat mai mult.*

(c) *Dacă aş fi fost bolnav, aş fi rămas acasă.*

(d) *Dacă n-ar fi avut timp, n-ar fi făcut nimic.*

(e) *Dacă copilul n-ar fi plîns, tatăl nu i-ar fi dat prăjitura.*

EXERCISE 11. Translate:

(a) If he helped me, I would help him.

(b) If I knew where he lives I could find him.

(c) He would come if I called him.

(d) If you want to you can.

(e) If you wanted to you could.

(f) If you had wanted to you could have.

(g) If I had eaten before I left I wouldn't be hungry now.

(h) If it has rained today the streets will be wet.

(i) If they had seen us we would have gotten into trouble.

(j) If I had remembered I would have brought your book.

(k) If she married me, we would be happy forever.

(l) I'll give you some money on the condition that you promise me not to spend it immediately.

(m) If you eat too much you'll get fat.

(n) If you had mentioned this before I would have known what to do.

(o) He is a good friend only if you have money.

2.72 THE CONCESSIVE CLAUSE. Concessive clauses express an action or state that occurs regardless of the occurrence of another action or state that might normally be expected to prevent it. For example, in the sentence 'Although he dresses well, he is poor' we know that being poor is a factor which in most cases would prevent one from dressing well but which in the case of hand does not. A concessive sentence, then, expresses or concedes an exception to a general rule.

Concessive sentences may be either *real* or *unreal*. The former denote events that occur in the past, present or future regardless of the occurrence of other events. Unreal sentences deal with events that have not occurred or which cannot occur.

real: *Deşi ştie totul, n-o să spună nimănui.*
Even though he knows everything he won't tell anyone.

unreal: *Chiar dacă ar fi ştiut totul, n-ar fi spus nimănui.*
Even if he had known everything he wouldn't have told anyone.

Concessive sentences that denote real events are normally introduced in Romanian by the conjunctions *deşi, cu toate că, măcar că,* and the colloquial *chit că*. Those that denote unreal events are headed by *chiar dacă, chiar de, chiar să,* and *nici dacă*.

(a) Real events. Real events are expressed in the present, past and future indicative tenses.

Deşi mă cunoaşte, nu vorbeşte cu mine niciodată.
Although he knows me he never speaks to me.

Cu toate că am ajuns foarte tîrziu, am fost primit foarte bine.
Even though I arrived late I was very well received.

Măcar că are foarte mulţi prieteni, nu are încredere în nici unul.
Even though he has many friends he doesn't trust any of them.

Chit că plouă, trebuie să ies puţin.
Even though it's raining I have to go out for a bit.

(b) Unreal events. Like the conditional sentence, the concessive construction can express unreality in a variety of ways; it is useful to examine those that are most commonly used. Since most conjunctions have slightly different meanings, the uses of unreal concessive sentences will be discussed according to the conjunctions that introduce them.

(1) *chiar dacă:* Like *dacă, chiar dacă* introduces unreal constructions in any tense.

past:

Chiar dacă a venit, nu vreau să-l văd în ochi.
Even if he has come I don't want to see him.

present:

Chiar dacă e bogat, nu vreau să mă duc nicăieri cu el.
Even if he's rich I don't want to go anywhere with him.

future:

Chiar dacă termină (va termina) proiectul mîine, va fi prea tîrziu.
Even if he is going to finish the project tomorrow, it will be too late.

conditional:

Chiar dacă mi-ar oferi ajutor, n-aş accepta.
Even if he offered help I wouldn't accept it.

contrary-to-fact:

Chiar dacă ai fi venit mai înainte, n-ai fi găsit pe nimeni acasa.
Even if you had come earlier, you wouldn't have found anyone at home.

(2) *nici dacă:* Like *chiar dacă, nici dacă* 'not even if' introduces unreal concessions in any tense. It is unique, however, in that the verb of the main clause must be in the negative.

Nici dacă aş cere scuze, nu m-ar ierta.
Even if I asked his forgiveness he wouldn't forgive me.

Nici dacă vine cu maşina, nu ajunge la timp.
Not even if he comes by car will he arrive on time.

N-aş fi crezut ce mi-a spus, nici dacă s-ar fi jurat.
I wouldn't have believed what he told me even if he had sworn to it.

(3) *chiar de:* More colloquial than literary, *chiar de* usually introduces concessive clauses in the conditional and conditional perfect.

Chiar de-ar avea bani, nu ţi-ar da ţie nimic.
Even if he had money he wouldn't give you any.

Chiar de l-am fi rugat, nu ne-ar fi ajutat.
Even if we had asked him he wouldn't have helped us.

(4) *chiar să:* This conjunction may be followed by the present or perfect subjunctive. In the former case it may have either a future or conditional meaning depending upon the tense of the main clause; in the latter case it is always contrary-to-fact.

Voi spune adevărul, chiar să se supere.
I'm going to tell the truth even if he gets angry.

Chiar să vină toată familia, aş fi mulţumit.
Even if the whole family came I would be satisfied.

Chiar să fi venit toată familia, aş fi fost mulţumit.
Even if the whole family had come I would have been satisfied.

(c) Equivalent tenses. In concessive clauses, future, conditional and contrary-to-fact sentences may be expressed in more than one way. Some of these ways have already been discussed. The future may be expressed with the present, future or present subjunctive (*chiar dacă vine, chiar dacă va veni, chiar să vină*); the conditional with the conditional or present subjunctive (*chiar dacă ar veni, chiar să vină*); the contrary-to-fact construction, as in the case of the conditional clause, may be expressed with the conditional perfect, the perfect subjunctive or the imperfect in the dependent clause and the conditional perfect or the imperfect in the independent clause.

Chiar dacă ar fi venit, n-aş fi venit eu.
Chiar să fi venit, n-aş fi venit eu.
Chiar dacă venea, nu veneam eu.
} Even if he had come I wouldn't have come.

(d) Combination of tenses. Since the tense of the dependent clause does not determine the tense of the independent clause, future, conditional, and contrary-to-fact concessive sentences may make use of several combinations of tenses.

(1) future

Chiar dacă merg, nu merg cu tine.
Chiar dacă voi merge, nu voi merge cu tine
Chiar dacă merg, nu voi merge cu tine.
Chiar dacă voi merge, nu merg cu tine.
Chiar să merg, nu merg cu tine.
Chiar să merg, nu voi merge cu tine.
} Even if I go I'm not going with you.

(2) conditional

Chiar dacă aş merge, n-aş merge cu tine.
Chiar să merg, n-aş merge cu tine.
} Even if I went I wouldn't go with you.

(3) contrary-to-fact

Chiar dacă aş fi mers, n-aş fi mers cu tine.
Chiar dacă aş fi mers, nu mergeam cu tine.
} Even if I had gone, I wouldn't have gone with you.

Chiar dacă mergeam, n-aş fi mers cu tine.
Chiar dacă mergeam, nu mergeam cu tine.
Chiar să fi mers, n-aş fi mers cu tine.
Chiar să fi mers, nu mergeam cu tine.

Even if I had gone, I wouldn't have gone with you.

EXERCISE 12. Complete the following sentences.

(a) *Deşi are foarte mulţi prieteni,* ___________.
(b) *Măcar că vorbeşte tare,* ___________.
(c) *Cu toate că ai călătorit foarte mult,* ___________.
(d) *Deşi nimeni nu înţelege ce vreau să spun,* ___________.
(e) *Chit că locuinţa e mare,* ___________.
(f) *Nici dacă ar fi bolnav,* ___________.
(g) *Chiar dacă ar fi venit cu nevasta la chef,* ___________.
(h) *Nici dacă ar fi spus că nu se poate,* ___________.
(i) *Chiar dacă vine la mine,* ___________.
(j) *Chiar dacă ar fi venit la mine,* ___________.

EXERCISE 13. Rewrite the following sentences changing the present to the conditional and *deşi* to *chiar dacă*.

Model: *Deşi merge repede nu ajunge la timp.* *Chiar dacă ar merge repede n-ar ajunge la timp.*

(a) *Deşi are încredere în mine, acum nu mă crede.*
(b) *Deşi ştie totul, nu recunoaşte nimic.*
(c) *Prietenul meu stă puţin la noi, deşi vine de departe.*
(d) *Deşi au bani, nu ştiu ce să cumpere.*
(e) *Deşi nu te ajut, îţi urez succes.*

2.8 CLAUSES OF OPPOSITION, EXCEPTION AND CUMULATIVE CIRCUMSTANCE. Somewhat less common than other clause types analyzed here, these three constructions are formed as follows:

2.81 Opposition. Clauses of opposition are almost always introduced by *în loc să* (or, rarely, by *în loc ca să*), and like the English locution *instead of* introduce an event that occurs in place of another, perhaps more likely, event.

> *Era bolnav, dar în loc să stea în pat, a mers la serviciu în fiecare zi.*
> He was ill but instead of staying in bed he went to work everyday.
>
> *In loc să recunoască greşeala, a insistat că nu e responsabil.*
> Instead of admitting the mistake he insisted he wasn't responsible.
>
> *In loc să mergi acasă acum, de ce nu stai la mine?*
> Instead of going home now, why don't you stay with me?

2.82 Exception. In most cases, clauses of exception, introduced by the locution *decît să*, provide an exception to a negative statement.

> *N-are ambiţii, decît să fie fericit.*
> He has no ambitions but to be happy.
>
> *Nu ştiu altceva, decît să cînt şi să dansez.*
> I don't know how to do anything except to sing and dance.
>
> *N-a zis nimic altceva, decît să taci.*
> He didn't say anything except for you to be quiet.

2.83 Cumulative circumstance. These clauses add to the action of the main clause an additional action which, because of its unexpected nature, intensifies in some way the implications of the event of the main clause. Clauses of cumulative circumstance are usually introduced by *dupa ce că, pe lînga că* and the more colloquial *în afară că*.

Dupa ce că e tîmpit, e şi crud.
Besides being stupid he is also cruel.

Dupa ce că n-a ştiut răspunsul, n-a înţeles întrebarea.
Besides not knowing the answer he didn't understand the question.

Pe lîngă că toţi prietenii batrînului sînt morţi, familia lui l-a părăsit.
Beside the fact that all of the old man's friends are dead his family has abandoned him.

In afară că n-am timp s-o fac, nici nu vreau s-o fac.
Aside from not having time to do it, I don't want to do it.

EXERCISE 14. Rewrite the following sentences using a conjunction of opposition, exception or cumulative circumstance.

Models:	*A fost bolnav dar, n-a rămas în pat, ci a mers la slujbă.*	*A fost bolnav, dar, în loc sa ramîna în pat, a mers la slujba.*
	Singurul lucru pe care îl vrea este să fie bogat.	*Nu vrea nimic altceva, decît sa fie bogat.*
	Are bani şi are şi prieteni puternici.	*Dupa ce că are bani, are şi prieteni puternici.*

(a) *El n-a rămas, cum vroia toată lumea, ci a plecat.*
(b) *E sărac şi bolnav.*
(c) *Ştie numai să facă bani.*
(d) *E zgîrcit şi şi crud.*
(e) *Nu s-a supărat cînd am făcut greşeala, ci s-a rîs.*
(f) *Aş vrea să fie pace pe lume şi să nu mai facem războaie.*
(g) *Citeşte mult şi şi ştie multe.*
(h) *Nici nu înţelege nici nu vrea să înţeleagă.*
(i) *L-am rugat să mă aştepte cinci minute, atîta tot.*
(j) *Plouă şi mi-e frig.*

EXERCISE 15. Translate.

(a) Instead of admitting the truth, he lied.
(b) Besides being drunk, he is also a fool.
(c) Instead of going home, he went to the restaurant.
(d) I don't want anything, except to be left alone.
(e) He doesn't believe anything, except what he sees.
(f) In addition to being small, he is also weak.
(g) Instead of working, he played all day.
(h) Besides not being able to read the book in one day, he didn't understand what he did read.
(i) Instead of walking, he runs everythere.
(j) Instead of worrying about everything, he doesn't think about anything, except taking care of his birds.

2.9 COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS. An adjective or adverb within a sentence may be compared to an action or state of a subordinate clause. Such comparisons may be of equality, whereby some type of equivalence is denoted, or of inequality, in which a relationship of superiority or inferiority is established between the adjective or adverb on the one hand, and the dependent clause on the other.

2.91 Comparison of equality. Both adjectives and adverbs are compared most commonly with the correlative conjunctions *aşa (de)...cum.*

Peisajul pe aici nu e aşa de frumos cum mi s-a spus.
The countryside around here is not as beautiful as I was told.

Mi se pare că situaţia e asa de gravă cum am crezut.
It seems that the situation is just as serious as I thought it was.

Studentul n-a învăţat lecţia aşa de bine cum a vrut profesorul.
The student didn't learn the lesson as well as the professor wanted.

El se poartă cu toată lumea tot aşa de corect cum s-a purtat cu tine.
He behaves with everyone just as courteously as he behaved with you.

2.92 Comparisons of inequality. With both adjectives and adverbs comparisons of superiority are expressed with the correlatives *mai (+ adjective or adverb)...decît* and those of inferiority with *mai puţin (+ adjective or adverb)...decît.*

(a) superiority

Peisajul pe aici e mai frumos decît mi s-a spus.
The countryside around here is more beautiful than I was told.

Mi se pare că situaţia e mai gravă decît am crezut.
It seems that the situation is more serious than I had believed.

Studentul a învăţat lecţia mai bine decît a anticipat profesorul.
The student learned the lesson better than the professor had anticipated.

El se poartă mai corect cu alţii decît s-a purtat cu tine.
He behaves more courteously with others than he behaved with you.

(b) inferiority (Although such sentences as the following are possible in Romanian, they are often considered somewhat clumsy. The same or a similar idea can usually be expressed by a comparison of equality in the negative; for example, instead of saying *peisajul pe aici e mai puţin frumos decît...* it would probably be more common to hear *peisajul pe aici nu-i aşa de frumos cum...*)

Peisajul pe aici e mai puţin frumos decît mi s-a spus.
The countryside around here is less beautiful than I was told (it was).

Mi se pare că situaţia e mai puţin gravă decît am crezut.
It seems to me that the situation is less serious than I believed.

Studentul a învăţat lecţia mai puţin bine decît a vrut profesorul.
The student learned the lesson less well than the professor wanted.

Note: The verb of the independent clause must follow immediately after *cu* and *decît*.

EXERCISE 16. Rewrite the following sentences changing the comparison of equality to one of superiority.

Models:

El scrie tot aşa de bine cum vorbeşte.	*El scrie mai bine decît vorbeşte.*
Fata e aşa de simpatică cum mi-au descris-o.	*Fata e mai simpatica decît mi-au descris-o.*

(a) *Timpul astazi nu-i aşa de plăcut cum a fost ieri.*
(b) *Cred că autorul scrie aşa de prost cum spun criticii.*
(c) *M-am distrat aşa de mult cum te-ai distrat tu.*
(d) *Problema e aşa de grea cum am crezut.*
(e) *Astăzi sînt aşa de bolnav cum am fost ieri.*

REVIEW EXERCISE

Translate:

1. Wherever he went his family went with him, even though he had to travel a lot.
2. I saw him when he came back since he lives right around where I live.
3. He explained everything so well that everyone would have understood if they had been listening.
4. I have to go out to find my lost dog.
5. Even if you paid me I wouldn't do that.
6. Aside from eating too little he sleeps too little and won't do anything but drink.
7. Even though I told him that I would give him the money to finish at the university he didn't believe me.
8. Since I told him his father was coming, he stayed to wait for him instead of going home to bed.
9. If he had thought about his family while he was in prison, instead of working, he would have gone crazy.
10. She was so sorry that he couldn't come that she was unable to do anything but weep.
11. The situation is not as bad as it was yesterday and much better than it was last week.
12. If he could write as well as he speaks he would be a rich man.
13. Even though he seems as competent as he used to be he is still too old for this position.
14. Since he wanted to finish before nightfall he worked as hard as he could.
15. If he had known it as well then as he knows it now he wouldn't have been in such a difficult position.

EXERCISE KEY

In many cases, the sentences offered below represent possible answers but certainly not the only answers possible. This is obviously true in the case of those sentences which the student is required to complete.

EXERCISE 1.

(a) *Nu l-am văzut de cînd ne-am întîlnit pe stradă acum trei luni.*
(b) *S-a început războiul după ce regele a fost omorît.*
(c) *Fata a dansat cît a durat cheful.*
(d) *De cîte ori a venit la mine, a plecat supărat.*
(e) *Cum ajunge acasă, cum deschide televizorul.*
(f) *Şi-a uitat pălăria cînd a plecat din birou.*
(g) *O să cumpăr o cămaşă nouă îndată ce am timp să mă duc în centru.*
(h) *A plîns tot timpul cît a durat filmul.*
(i) *Nu mănînc pînă nu vin acasă copiii.*
(j) *Am început să conversăm după ce conferinţa s-a terminat.*
(k) *A pornit trenul imediat ce m-am sărit în el.*
(l) *A înţeles filmul cînd l-a văzut a doua oară.*
(m) *N-a început cheful pînă (nu) am ştiut rezultatele elecţiei.*
(n) *S-a îmbolnăvit îndată ce a mîncat carnea.*
(o) *M-a insultat de cîte ori am încercat să discut problema cu el.*

EXERCISE 2.

(a) *L-a căutat pe prietenul lui unde era vorbă să se întîlnească.*
(b) *El zice că vine de pe unde am venit eu.*
(c) *A intrat în padure pe unde a văzut lupul.*
(d) *Barca a plecat de pe unde apa e mai adîncă.*
(e) *Şi-a găsit prieteni oriunde căuta.*

EXERCISE 3.

(a) *Oriunde merge băiatul, merge şi cîinele.*
(b) *Am căutat cartea pe unde credeam că am lăsat-o.*

(c) *Casa lui era (acolo) unde e spitalul acum.*

(d) *L-am văzut în mijlocul rîului pe unde e apa mai mare şi mi-a zis că a început să înoate de pe unde era înainte podul.*

(e) *Autobuzul a plecat de unde pleacă întotdeauna.*

EXERCISE 4.

(a) *El cîntă cum cînta tatăl său.*

(b) *Pe măsura ce soseau trenurile se urcau pasagerii.*

(c) *Caut casa pe aici după cum mi s-au descris locurile.*

(d) *A strigat ca şi cum era (ar fi fost) beat.*

(e) *S-a supărat tare pe mine de parcă eram eu de vină.*

(f) *A citit trei cărţi în şir fără să se odihnească.*

(g) *Profesorul a ghicit ce am vrut să spun ca şi cum mi-ar fi ştiut gîndurile.*

(h) *Nevasta mea găteşte aşa cum a învăţat-o mama sa.*

(i) *Şi imediat a adormit de parcă n-ar fi dormit de foarte multe zile.*

(j) *E un om cinstit şi traieşte precum crede că ar trebui să trăiască.*

EXERCISE 5.

(a) *Vreau să faci aşa cum îţi spun eu.*

(b) *A vorbit de parcă i-era frică.*

(c) *Hoţul a intrat în cameră fără să mă trezească.*

(d) *Pe masura ce se innoptea el devenea din ce în ce mai trist.*

(e) *A făcut totul după cum i-am explicat eu.*

EXERCISE 6.

(a) *N-a mîncat astăzi ca să poată veni acasă mai devreme.*

(b) *Am stins luminile ca să nu mă vadă.*

(c) *A ieşit să cumpere un ziar.*

(d) *Am ieşit din cameră ca să puteţi fi singuri.*

(e) *Şi-a trimis copilul la şcoală ca să înveţe ceva.*

EXERCISE 7.

(a) *M-am obosit de nu mai pot.*

(b) *Atît o iubea pe soţia sa încît îi cumpăra un cadou în fiecare zi.*

(c) *Aşa mi-e scîrba de şerpi că nici nu pot să-i văd la gradina zoologică.*

(d) *Toată ziua s-a purtat în aşa fel încît mi-a fost ruşine de el.*

(e) *Aşa mult a cîştigat că n-a mai fost nevoit să lucreze.*

EXERCISE 8.

(a) *Aşa a rîs că a căzut pe jos.*

(b) *Trebuie să-i o spun în aşa fel încît să nu se supere.*

(c) *Aşa mult a lucrat cînd era tînăr încît a fost adesea bolnav.*

(d) *Mi-a plăcut filmul aşa mult că l-am văzut de trei ori.*

(e) *Atît de mult am vorbit aseară încît astăzi nu pot să vorbesc de loc.*

EXERCISE 9.

(a)	*Dacă vrei, ai timp.*	*Dacă ai fi vrut, ai fi avut timp.*
(b)	*Dacă ar sosi trenul, ar coborî pasagerii.*	*Dacă ar fi sosit trenul, ar fi coborît pasagerii.*
(c)	*Dacă ai vrea, am putea să plecăm mai devreme.*	*Dacă ai fi vrut, am fi putut sa plecăm mai devreme.*
(d)	*Dacă ar şti el, ar şti toată lumea.*	*Dacă ar fi ştiut el, ar fi ştiut toată lumea.*
(e)	*Dacă ar veni tîrziu, l-aş aştepta.*	*Dacă ar fi venit tîrziu, nu l-aş fi aşteptat.*

EXERCISE 10.

(a)	*Să fi fost eu în locul lui aş fi făcut acelaşi lucru.*	*Dacă eram cu în locul lui, făceam acelaşi lucru.*
(b)	*Să fi insistat eu mai mult el ar fi fost de acord.*	*Dacă insistam mai mult, el era de acord.*
(c)	*Să fi fost eu bolnav, aş fi rămas acasa.*	*Dacă eram bolnav, ramîneam acasă.*
(d)	*Să fi avut timp, n-ar fi făcut nimic.*	*Dacă aveam timp, nu făceam nimic.*

(e)	*Să nu fi plîns copilul tatăl nu-i ar fi dat prăjitura.*	*Daca copilul nu plîngea, tatăl nu-i dădea prajitura.*

EXERCISE 11.

(a) *Dacă el m-ar ajuta (pe mine), eu l-aş ajuta pe el.*

(c) *Dacă aş şti unde trăieşte, l-aş putea găsi.*

(c) *Ar veni dacă l-aş chema.*

(d) *Dacă vrei, poţi.*

(e) *Dacă ai vrea, ai putea.*

(f) *Dacă ai fi vrut, ai fi putut.*
Să fi vrut, ai fi putut.
Dacă vroiai, puteai.

(g) *De-aş fi mîncat înainte de-a pleca, nu mi-era foame acum.*

(h) *Dacă a plouat astăzi, străzile vor fi ude.*

(i) *De ne-ar fi văzut, am fi încurcat-o.*

(j) *Dacă mi-aş fi adus aminte, ţi-aş fi adus cartea.*

(k) *Dacă s-ar căsători cu mine, am fi fericiţi pentru totdeauna.*

(l) *Iţi dau nişte bani cu condiţia să promiţi să nu-i cheltuieşti imediat.*

(m) *Dacă mănînci prea mult, te îngraşi.*

(n) *Dacă ai fi menţionat asta dinainte, aş fi ştiut ce să fac.*

(o) *El e un prieten bun numai dacă ai bani.*

EXERCISE 12.

(a) *Deşi are foarte mulţi prieteni, nici unul nu-l cunoaşte bine.*

(b) *Măcar că vorbeşte tare, nimeni nu l-ascultă.*

(c) *Cu toate că ai călătorit mult, nu prea înţelegi lumea.*

(d) *Deşi nimeni nu înţelege ce vreau să spun, toţi zic că sînt de acord cu mine.*

(e) *Chit că locuinţa e mare, nu încape toată familia în ea.*

(f) *Nici dacă ar fi bolnav, n-ar rămîne acasă.*

(g) *Chiar dacă ar fi venit cu nevasta la chef, ar fi plecat singur.*

(h) *Nici dacă ar fi spus că nu se poate, aş fi încercat.*

(i) *Chiar dacă vine la mine n-o să am timp să stau de vorbă cu el.*

(j) *Chiar dacă ar fi venit la mine, n-aş fi avut timp să stau de vorbă cu el.*

EXERCISE 13.

(a) *Chiar dacă ar avea încredere în mine, acum nu m-ar crede.*
(b) *Chiar dacă ar şti totul, n-ar recunoaşte nimic.*
(c) *Chiar dacă ar veni de departe, ar sta numai puţin la noi.*
(d) *Chiar dacă ar avea bani, n-ar avea ce să cumpere.*
(e) *Chiar dacă nu te-aş ajuta, te-aş ura succes.*

EXERCISE 14.

(a) *In loc să rămînă, cum a vrut toată lumea, a plecat.*
(b) *Pe lîngă că este sărac, e şi bolnav.*
(c) *Nu ştie nimic altceva decît să facă bani.*
(d) *După ce că e zgîrcit, e şi crud.*
(e) *In loc să se supere cînd am făcut greşeala, a rîs.*
(f) *Aş vrea să fie pace pe lume în loc să mai facem războaie.*
(g) *Pe lîngă că citeşte mult, ştie multe.*
(h) *Inafară că nu înţelege, nici nu vrea să înţeleagă.*
(i) *Nu-i am cerut nimic altceva, decît să aştepte cinci minute.*
(j) *După ce că ploua, mi-e şi frig.*

EXERCISE 15.

(a) *In loc să recunoască adevărul, a minţit.*
(b) *Inafară că e beat, e şi ţimpit.*
(c) *In loc să meargă acasă, a mers la restaurant.*
(d) *Nu vreau nimic altceva, decît să fiu lăsat în pace.*
(e) *Nu crede nimic decît ceea ce vede.*
(f) *Pe lîngă că e mic, e şi slab.*
(g) *In loc să lucreze, s-a jucat toată ziua.*
(h) *Pe lîngă că n-a putut să citească cartea intr-o singură zi, n-a înţeles ce a citit.*

(i) *In loc să umble, fuge pretutindeni.*

(j) *In loc să se preocupe de toate, nu se gîndește la nimic altceva, decît să aibă grijă de păsări.*

EXERCISE 16.

(a) *Timpul astăzi e mai plăcut decît a fost ieri.*

(b) *Cred că autorul scrie mai prost decît spun criticii.*

(c) *M-am distrat mai mult decît te-ai distrat tu.*

(d) *Problema e mai grea decît am crezut.*

(e) *Astăzi sînt mai bolnav decît am fost ieri.*

REVIEW EXERCISES

1. *Oriunde mergea (a mers), familia lui mergea cu el, deşi călătorea foarte mult.*
2. *L-am văzut cînd a venit înapoi fiindcă umbla tocmai pe acolo unde locuiam eu.*
3. *Aşa bine a explicat totul încît toată lumea ar fi înţeles dacă ar fi ascultat.*
4. *Trebuie să ies afară să-mi găsesc cîinele pierdut.*
5. *Chiar dacă m-ai plăti, n-aş face aceasta.*
6. *Pe lîngă că mănînca prea puţin, doarme prea puţin, şi nu vrea să facă nimic altceva decît să bea.*
7. *Deşi i-am spus că i-aş da banii ca să poată termina facultatea, totuşi nu m-a crezut.*
8. *Fiindcă i-am spus că vine tatăl său, a stat să l-aştepte, în loc să se ducă acasă să se culce.*
9. *Dacă s-ar fi gînait la familia sa tot timpul cît a stat în închisoare, ar fi înnebunit.*
10. *Aşa de rău i-a parut că nu putea să vină, încît n-a putut să facă nimic altceva decît să plîngă.*
11. *Situaţia nu este aşa de proastă cum a fost ieri, şi mult mai bună decît a fost săptămîna trecută.*
12. *Dacă ar putea să scrie aşa bine cum vorbeşte, ar fi un om bogat.*
13. *Deşi pare tot aşa de competent cum era, totuşi este prea batrîn pentru acest post.*
14. *Fiindcă vroia să termine înainte de caderea nopţii, a lucrat cît a putut.*
15. *De-ar fi ştiut-o atunci aşa de bine cum o ştie acum, n-ar fi fost intr-o situaţie aşa de grea.*

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Gramatica limbii române. Editura Academiei Republicii Populare Române, vols. I and II, 1954. Standard grammatical reference work. Useful and complete.

Iordan, Iorgu. *Limba română contemporană.* Bucharest, Editura Ministerului Invăţămîntului, 1956.

Limba română, fonetică-vocabular-gramatică. Editura Academiei Republicii Populare Române.

Nicolescu, Aurel. *Probleme de sintaxă a propoziţiei.* Bucharest, Editura Stiintifică, 1970.

Şerban, Vasile. *Sintaxa limbii române, curs practic.* Second edition. Bucharest, Editura Didactică şi Pedagogică, 1970. Complete, well-written, traditional exposition of Romanian syntax. Useful as a reference grammar.

ROMANIAN GRAMMAR PAMPHLETS

James E. Augerot, Editor

X. STRUCTURA ETIMOLOGICĂ A VOCABULARULUI ROMÂNESC

by

Theodor Hristea

This work was developed pursuant to a contract between
the U.S. Office of Education and the Center for Applied Linguistics

(OEC-0-72-1588)

1973

PREFACE

These Romanian grammar pamphlets grew out of meetings held at the American Council of Learned Societies for the development of materials for Eastern European languages and subsequent funding by the U.S. Office of Education through the Center for Applied Linguistics. Priorities for language materials were established by polling most of those concerned with the teaching of Romanian in the United States. It was decided that, among other things, a series of grammar pamphlets, each treating specific problems and providing exercises, was the best way of attacking the shortage of materials for students beyond the first-year manuals. The pamphlets were thought useful because of the flexibility they would offer to a field in which teaching philosophies differed greatly from institution to institution and student needs beyond the first year course are also very disparate. The teacher of Romanian will have the opportunity to tailor his course to his students' needs using any number of the pamphlets in whatever order he determines to be most fruitful. Each pamphlet is basically independent of all the others, although there is some cross reference and the series has been arranged in an order suggesting the best use, all other things being equal. I would suggest that the teacher might find the first 3 pamphlets useful even before the first year of Romanian is completed. The remainder could very well serve as companion units to a second-year course that concentrates on readings and a refinement of the students' appreciation of finer points of Romanian grammar and expression. Eventually we hope to see more materials for advanced courses including a social science reader, more grammar pamphlets and a reference grammar, as well as a good dictionary.

Each pamphlet contains exercises appropriate to the materials and a brief bibliography for the enterprising student who wants to begin to make a serious study of the language.

The Editor takes full responsibility for the arrangement and the typography of the series. The particular theoretical approach and content of

each pamphlet varies considerably, however, and the individual authors remain responsible in these areas. We felt that this was not in any way detrimental in relation to the goals of the series. We included two of the pamphlets in the original Romanian. We realize that these will be somewhat difficult for the less advanced student, but he must begin to make the transition some time and these will help him to that end.

I thank Ms. Dorothy Rapp of the Center for Applied Linguistics for her always pleasant logistical assistance and to Ms. Kathleen Murphy, the project Secretary and in fact, although not in title, Assistant Editor, I owe a great deal. Professor Mircea Borcilă of the University of Cluj has been a constant and delightful consultant for things Romanian.

The titles and authors of the ten pamphlets in the recommended order are as follows:

I. SOME ROMANIAN DETERMINERS by Frederick B. Agard
II. ROMANIAN INTONATION AND STRESS by Robert L. Rankin
III. THE CONJUGATION OF THE ROMANIAN VERB by James E. Augerot
IV. PREPOSITIONS by Cornel Capuşan
V. POSSESSIVE AND DATIVE CONSTRUCTIONS IN ROMANIAN by Frederick B. Agard
VI. PRONUME ŞI FORME ENCLITICE by Anca Belchiţă Hartular
VII. PATTERNS OF SYNTAX IN ROMANIAN by Robert L. Rankin
VIII. NOUN CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN by James Algeo
IX. ADVERB CLAUSES IN ROMANIAN by James Algeo
X. STRUCTURA ETIMOLOGICĂ A VOCABULARULUI ROMÂNESC by Theodor Hristea

James E. Augerot
Editor
University of Washington
May 15, 1973

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface..i

Table of Contents..iii

Synopsis...iv

1.0 Consideraţii preliminare...................................1

2.0 Structura etimologică generală a lexicului românesc........2

Bibliografie...6

3.0 Fondul lexical latin.......................................6

Bibliografie...9

4.0 Elemente autohtone în vocabularul românesc.................9

Bibliografie...12

5.0 Imprumuturi lexicale de origine slavă......................12

Bibliografie...14

6.0 Imprumuturi de origine maghiară............................14

Bibliografie...16

7.0 Imprumuturi de origine turcească...........................17

Bibliografie...18

8.0 Imprumuturi de origine grecească...........................19

Bibliografie...21

9.0 Fondul lexical neologic....................................21

Bibliografie...24

10.0 Consideraţii finale.......................................24

Bibliografie generală..25

THE ETYMOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF THE ROMANIAN VOCABULARY

SYNOPSIS

What strikes the foreign researcher who becomes conversant with the Romanian language and its history is the fact that this language has preserved its Latin character, although it has developed within a non-Romance (particularly Slav) environment. The individuality of the Romanian language in comparison with others belonging to the same family resides not only in its grammatical system (which contains Latin traits extinct in the other Romance languages) but also in the etymological structure of its vocabulary which exhibits great variety. Thus, according to statistics computed by D. Macrea (and critically considered by us) the words recorded in the *Dicţionarul limbii române moderne* (A Dictionary of the Modern Romanian Language), issued in 1958, can be classed by their origin into 76 groups. Out of these only 14 exceed 1%, namely: inherited Latin words (20.02%), learned Latin (2.39%), old Slav words (7.98%), Bulgarian (1.78%), Bulgarian-Serbian (1.51%), Turkish (3.62%), Hungarian (2.17%), New Greek (2.37%), French (38.42%), Italian (1.72%), German (1.77%), onomatopeic (2.24%), of uncertain origin (2.73%), and of unknown origin (5.58%).

The origins of the other Romanian words are found in Russian, Ukrainian, Serbian, Croatian, Polish, English, Spanish, Turkish, Bulgarian, Tartar, Gipsy etc. Although not very numerous, the elements which are common to Romanian and Albanian (0.93%), studied in the 4th chapter, are particularly important, as they form the autochthonous stock or the *lexical sub-stratum* of the Romanian language.

What accounts for the (frequently emphasized) heterogeneity of the Romanian vocabulary is the fact that the Romanian people lived for many centuries in contact with the Slavs, Hungarians, Turks, Greeks etc. and were severed early from the Western world. Succinctly examined in this paper is the formation of the Romanian people and language, as well as the historical circumstances which determined the Slav, Hungarian, Turkish and Greek influences. The paper discusses all these influences (Chapters V, VI, VII and VIII), showing that they particularly enriched the Romanian vocabulary and system

of word-formation, but did not change the Latin essence of the grammatical structure. A proof thereof is the fact that both the borrowings from Slav and from other idioms were adapted to the Romanian morphological system, which is nearly entirely inherited from Latin. Thus the originally Slav verbs *a hrăni* "to feed", *a iubi* "to love", *a munci* "to work", *a plăti* "to pay" etc. when conjugated, follow the model of the verb *a înflori* "to burst into flowers" (therefore *hrănesc, iubesc, muncesc* etc., in which the flexional element *-esc* represents the Latin suffix *-isco*). Likewise, the nouns *ceas* "clock", *glas* "voice", *prieten* "friend" etc. get the article *-(u)l*, the origin of which is also Latin. It ensues that the words borrowed from Slavic and other languages are inflected according to patterns of Latin origin -- an extremely important fact for determining the character of the Romanian language.

It may be added that some 60% of the *basic vocabulary* of the Romanian language consists of inherited Latin words. As a rule, these words designate fundamental notions, they have developed a great number of meanings, and their frequency is among the highest. In order to prove this assertion, we have appealed to the results of another statistical study, namely one on the vocabulary of the poems which Mihail Eminescu published during his lifetime. It follows from these statistics that the weight of Latin elements in Eminescu's vocabulary is 48% -- a percentage that rises to 83% when considered from the point of view of frequency.

The final chapter is a very brief analysis of the neologistic borrowings from Latin, French, Italian, German, Russian and English. The conclusion, which we clearly formulate within "the final considerations", emphasizes that these loans substantially enriched, modernized, and relatinized the contemporary Romanian vocabulary.

STRUCTURA ETIMOLOGICĂ A VOCABULARULUI ROMÂNESC

I. Consideraţii preliminare

1.0 Este un lucru unanim admis astăzi că studiul comparativ al limbilor romanice şi balcanice nu este posibil fără cunoaşterea românei, a cărei importanţă şi originalitate sînt din ce în ce mai des subliniate. Dintre savanţii străini, în special finlandezul Valentin Kiparsky şi romanistul suedez Alf Lombard au dat o înaltă apreciere limbii române ca obiect de cercetare ştiinţifică. Oricît de surprinzător ar părea, pentru aceşti învăţaţi româna este cea mai interesantă dintre toate idiomurile care se vorbesc pe continentul european. Se înţelege că o limbă care e foarte interesantă ca obiect de studiu ştiinţific nu este, în mod obligatoriu, şi foarte importantă (sau la fel de importantă) ca mijloc de comunicare. Este tocmai cazul românei, care, fără a fi o limbă de circulaţie internaţională, prezintă, totuşi, un interes ştiinţific deosebit prin structura sa, în general, şi prin eterogenitatea vocabularului ei, în special.

După cum s-a mai subliniat, nu o singură dată, lexicul românesc este foarte variat ca origine şi aceasta din cauză că la formarea lui au contribuit numeroase limbi în frunte cu latina, din care româna a moştenit *structura ei gramaticală* şi cea mai mare parte a *vocabularului fundamental*. Întrucît pe baza acestora se determină, în primul rînd, adevăratul caracter al unei limbi, vom spune, dintru început, că româna face parte din familia limbilor romanice şi că ea este continuatoarea latinei vorbite în fosta provincie română Dacia şi în regiunile romanizate de pe malul drept al Dunării. În acelaşi spaţiu s-a format şi poporul român, în urma convieţuirii populaţiei autohtone daco-moesiene cu coloniştii de limbă latină, aduşi în Dacia şi în sudul Dunării. O dată cu secolul al X-lea, populaţia românească a început să fie menţionată în izvoarele istorice sub denumirea de "vlahi" sau "valahi", ceea ce înseamnă că, la această dată, atît poporul român, cît şi limba lui erau deja formate.

1.2. După ce s-a format şi apoi s-a dezvoltat în mod unitar, limba română comună s-a scindat în patru dialecte care sînt: *dacoromân, aromân* (sau *macedoromân*), *meglenoromân* şi *istroromân*.

Scindarea limbii române *comune* în cele patru dialecte amintite este un proces îndelungat şi foarte greu de datat. După toate probabilităţile, acest proces a început prin secolul al X-lea şi s-a încheiat, cel mai tîrziu, la sfîrşitul veacului al XII-lea. Ceea ce trebuie subliniat e faptul că dintre cele patru dialecte iniţiale ale românei numai cel *dacoromân* s-a transformat în limbă naţională şi literară. În vorbirea curentă şi îndeosebi în lucrările de specialitate, acest dialect (singurul care ne interesează aici) este identificat cu limba română, al cărei vocabular ne propunem să-l examinăm în cele ce urmează.

II. Structura etimologică generală a lexicului românesc

2.0 A studia structura etimologică a vocabularului unei limbi înseamnă a cerceta felul în care se repartizează după origine unităţile lexicale sau cuvintele limbii respective. În alţi termeni, e vorba de studierea componenţei lexicului din punctul de vedere al originii lui istorice. O astfel de cercetare este deosebit de interesantă şi de semnificativă în cazul limbii române, al cărei vocabular este, sub acest raport, de o varietate rar întîlnită.

Eterogenitatea lexicului românesc se explică prin aceea că poporul român a trăit timp de secole în contact cu slavii, maghiarii, turcii, grecii etc. şi a fost de timpuriu izolat de romanitatea occidentală. Ceea ce este interesant şi trebuie reţinut e faptul că numeroasele influenţe exercitate asupra limbii române i-au afectat în special vocabularul şi sistemul de formare a cuvintelor, dar i-au lăsat nealterată esenţa ei latină. Că aceasta este realitatea va rezulta cu claritate din întreaga discuţie care urmează.

2.1 Într-un studiu întitulat *Compoziţia istorică şi tendinţele actuale de dezvoltare ale vocabularului românesc* (publicat în revista "Cercetări de lingvistică", Cluj, nr. 1-2, 1960, p. 39-57), profesorul D. Macrea a făcut o statistică a cuvintelor înregistrate în *Dicţionarul limbii române moderne* (DLRM), apărut în 1958, repartizîndu-le după originea sau etimologia lor. Autorul citat a ajuns la concluzia că cele aproape 50.000 de cuvinte inserate în dicţionarul amintit (mai exact spus: 49.649) pot fi clasificate după origine în 76 de grupe, dintre care numai 14 depăşesc 1%, şi anume:

- *latine:* 20,02% = 9.920 (dintre care 1.849 moştenite şi 8.071 derivate pe teren românesc şi variante);

- *vechi slave:* 7,98% = 3.959 (dintre care 1.133 împrumutate şi 2.826 derivate pe teren românesc, calcuri şi variante);
- *bulgăreşti:* 1,78% = 881 (dintre care 279 împrumutate şi 602 derivate pe teren românesc şi variante);
- *bulgaro-sîrbeşti:* 1,51% = 747 (dintre care 212 împrumutate şi 535 derivate pe teren românesc şi variante);
- *turceşti:* 3,62% = 1.827 (dintre care 1.048 împrumutate şi 779 derivate pe teren românesc şi variante);
- *maghiare:* 2,17% = 1.073 (dintre care 443 împrumutate şi 630 derivate pe teren românesc şi variante);
- *neogreceşti:* 2,37% = 1.172 (dintre care 579 împrumutate şi 593 derivate pe teren românesc şi variante);
- *franceze:* 38,42% = 19.129 (dintre care 12.770 împrumutate şi 6.359 derivate pe teren românesc, calcuri şi variante);
- *latine literare:* 2,39% = 1.186 (dintre care 738 împrumutate şi 448 derivate pe teren românesc şi variante);
- *italiene:* 1,72% = 851 (dintre care 430 împrumutate şi 421 derivate pe teren românesc şi variante);
- *germane:* 1,77% = 878 (dintre care 561 împrumutate şi 317 derivate pe teren românesc, calcuri şi variante);
- *onomatopeice:* 2,24% = 1.108 (dintre care 278 cuvinte de bază şi 836 derivate ale acestora pe teren românesc şi variante);
- *de origine nesigură:* 2,73% = 1.349 (dintre care 526 cuvinte de bază şi 823 derivate ale acestora pe teren românesc şi variante);
- *de origine necunoscută:* 5,58% = 2.770 (dintre care 1.440 cuvinte de bază şi 1.330 derivate ale acestora pe teren românesc şi variante);

Alte cuvinte româneşti sînt de origine *rusă, ucraineană, sîrbo-croată, polonă, engleză, spaniolă* etc., sînt formate în limba română de la *nume proprii* ori aparţin substratului *geto-dac* (cum vom arăta la momentul potrivit). Nu lipsesc, desigur, nici cuvintele de provenienţă asiatică (în special *arabă* şi *persană*), însă toate acestea au pătruns, în română, prin intermediul altor limbi, începînd cu turca şi terminînd cu franceza sau rusa. Fără a intra în detalii, vom adăuga că româna cunoaşte şi cuvinte *ţigăneşti*, însă numărul lor e mic, iar din punctul de vedere al frecvenţei ele se află la periferia vocabularului.

Celelalte grupe în care D. Macrea repartizează cuvintele românești după origine nu vor fi nici măcar menționate aici. Precum remarcă chiar autorul, ele sînt atît de infime numericește, încît nu pot fi cuprinse într-o expresie statistică curentă. Pentru a întregi imaginea pe care ne-am format-o pînă aici precizăm, totuși, că aceste grupe totalizează circa 1% din vocabularul românesc.

2.2 Așa cum am prezentat-o mai sus, statistica lui D. Macrea are meritul de a fi, deocamdată, singura care ne informează mai detaliat în legătură cu structura etimologică generală a lexicului românesc actual. După părerea noastră, datele acestei statistici sînt însă foarte aproximative, iar, în unele cazuri, departe de realitate. Ceea ce vom remarca, în primul rînd, este că cifra de 49.649 de cuvinte și variante, înregistrate in DLRM nu reflectă nici pe departe întreaga bogăție și varietate a vocabularului românesc. Fără a putea indica o cifră exactă, subliniem, totuși, că *Dicționarul limbii române* (în curs de apariție) va cuprinde aproximativ 140.000 de cuvinte și variante. În această cifră nu intră, desigur, și termenii tehnico-științifici de strictă specialitate. Ca și în alte limbi, aceștia sînt extrem de numeroși în română (după toate probabilitățile peste 100.000) și numărul lor este în continuă creștere.

Cea mai de seamă rezervă ce se poate exprima în legătură cu statistica la care ne referim este că ea a fost întocmită pe baza unui dicționar care, din punctul de vedere al etimologiei, nu reprezintă un instrument științific dintre cele mai perfecționate. Aprecieri critice în legătură cu partea etimologică a acestei lucrări lexicografice am făcut mai ales în revista "Studii și cercetări lingvistice", an.XI, 1960, nr. 2, p. 235-255. Luînd drept bune toate etimologiile date în DLRM, D. Macrea a ajuns la unele rezultate care vor părea oricui exagerate. Astfel, numărul elementelor franțuzești din limba română ar reprezenta 38,42% (așadar mai mult de o treime!) din vocabularul românesc modern. În realitate, multe dintre cuvintele pe care DLRM le atribuie influenței franceze provin din alte limbi ori au o etimologie multiplă. Astfel, *carub* e împrumutat din italiană (< *carrubo*), nu provine din fr. *caroube*, care înseamnă "roșcovă", deci denumește fructul arbustului (numit în franceză *caroubier*). *Frizer* reprezintă indiscutabil germ. *Friseur* (cf. şi pol. *fryzer*), nu fr. *friseur*, deoarece pentru noţiunea denumită de cuvîntul românesc amintit se folosesc, în franceză, exclusiv *coiffeur* şi *barbier*. *Motorist* nu provine nici el din fr. *motoriste* (inexistent în realitate), ci e un împrumut din rusă. La exemplele citate s-ar mai putea adăuga multe altele printre care şi derivate de felul lui *conspirativ, indentificabil, riscant, simplitate* etc., greşit deduse, în DLRM, din limba franceză.

O altă lipsă a dicţionarului la care ne referim este că subapreciază, iar, uneori, chiar ignorează principiul etimologiei multiple, care e aproape unanim acceptat în lingvistica românească. După DLRM, un cuvînt cum este, de pildă, *cismă* provine exclusiv din maghiară (<*csizma*), cînd, în realitate nimic nu ne împiedică să-l explicăm şi prin sîrbo-croată (cum se procedează, de altfel, în unele dicţionare româneşti). Tot aşa, este imposibil de demonstrat că *lampă* ne-a venit numai din germană, iar *inginer* exclusiv din franceză. De fapt, dacă ţinem seamă de toate sensurile şi variantele formale ale unui cuvînt împrumutat, de vechimea lui în limbă, de atestări, de diferenţele de accentuare şi de răspîndirea teritorială, ajungem la concluzia că, în foarte multe cazuri, trebuie să admitem o provenienţă multiplă. Afirmaţia de mai sus (care va fi reluată mai departe) este valabilă în special pentru neologismele româneşti, care provin, adesea, din mai multe limbi de cultură şi civilizaţie, ceea ce nu se reflectă întotdeauna în DLRM.

O ultimă obiecţie, care vizează, de data aceasta, numai pe autorul statisticii, se referă la felul în care a tratat variantele cuvintelor, atunci cînd şi-a întocmit statistica de care ne ocupăm. Oricît de nefiresc ar părea, pentru D. Macrea cuvintele propriu-zise şi variantele acestora stau pe acelaşi plan şi contează ca unităţi lexicale distincte. Din această cauză, un cuvînt cum este, spre exemplu, *păianjen* a fost socotit sau numărat de 10 ori, fiindcă alături de forma corectă sau literară amintită figurează 9 variante: *păiajen, păingin, paingăn, paing* etc. Fiecare dintre aceste forme este înregistrată şi în articol aparte, făcîndu-se cuvenita trimitere la cuvîntul-titlu, unde se explică sensurile şi se indică etimologia. Faptul că în cadrul calculului final împrumuturile sînt opuse variantelor şi derivatelor pe teren românesc, nu rezolvă problema, ci sporeşte confuzia şi caracterul aproximativ al datelor pe care ni le furnizează această statistică. E de la sine înţeles că variantele nu trebuie puse pe acelaşi plan cu formaţiile româneşti, din moment ce numai ultimele sînt cuvinte propriu-zise. Fără a mai insista asupra acestei deficienţe de metodă, vom conchide că, într-o statistică de acest gen, nu ne interesează decît ceea ce lexicografii numesc cuvinte-titlu, aşadar ceea ce stă înscris în fruntea articolelor cuprinse într-un dicţionar.

BIBLIOGRAFIE: D. Macrea, *Probleme de lingvistică română*, Bucureşti, 1961, p.29-38; Al. Graur, *Studii de lingvistică generală* (variantă nouă), Bucureşti, 1960, p. 67-77; Theodor Hristea, *Probleme de etimologie*, Bucureşti, 1968, p. 108-113.

III. Fondul lexical latin

3.0 Din statisica pe care am examinat-o rezultă că aproximativ 1/5 din lexicul românesc modern conţine cuvinte şi rădăcini moştenite din limba latină. În realitate, raportat la întregul vocabular românesc actual, procentul cuvintelor transmise direct din latină este mult mai mic decît 20%, dar, aşa cum vom vedea, acest fapt nu anulează şi nici nu diminuează prea mult caracterul romanic al limbii române.

Cu deplină certitudine se poate spune că nici în cazul altor limbi romanice numărul cuvintelor latineşti moştenite nu depăşeşte cifra de 2.000. Prin urmare, din punctul de vedere al unităţilor lexicale de bază transmise direct din latină, între română şi celelalte idiomuri romanice nu există diferenţe cantitative demne de luat în consideraţie. Acest lucru e astăzi unanim recunoscut şi el a fost adeseori subliniat de mai mulţi savanţi străini şi români: W. Meyer-Lübke, S. Puşcariu, Iorgu Iordan etc.

3.1 Ceea ce este foarte important şi merită să fie scos în evidenţă e faptul că elementele latineşti moştenite denumesc, de obicei, noţiuni fundamentale şi cunosc adesea o mare bogăţie de sensuri. Astfel, numele unor procese, acţiuni şi activităţi omeneşti dintre cele mai importante sînt denumite prin verbe de origine latină (în ordine strict alfabetică: *a asculta, a auzi, a bate, a bea, a cere, a cînta, a cîştiga, a crede, a creşte, a cugeta, a culege, a dormi, a face, a freca, a frînge, a fugi, a gusta, a ieşi,* *a intra, a îmbrăca, a începe, a înghiți, a întreba, a înțelege, a învăța, a lua, a lucra, a merge, a mînca, a muri, a naște, a pierde, a pleca, a plînge, a putea, a răspunde, a rîde, a roade, a scrie, a semăna, a spăla, a spune, a umbla, a vedea, a veni, a zice* etc.)

Numele unor obiecte, plante, animale sau alimente foarte importante sînt, de asemenea, denumite prin cuvinte de origine latină, dar nu putem întocmi aici liste lungi pentru toate aceste categorii. La cele deja amintite ar mai putea fi adăugate: numele unor însușiri fizice și psihice (*bun, rău, frumos, tînăr, deștept, înțelept* etc.), numele unor grade de rudenie (*mamă, tată, frate, soră, fiu, văr, nepot, unchi* etc.), numele unor culori mai importante (*alb, albastru, negru, galben, verde, roșu* etc.), numele tuturor zilelor săptămînii și un mare număr de cuvinte care denumesc diverse părți ale corpului omenesc: *cap, mînă, braț, picior, spate, umăr, coastă, frunte, gură, dinte, măsea, nas, ochi, ureche, limbă, inimă, ficat, mațe, piele, piept, os, sînge* etc.

Dintre părțile de vorbire, o mențiune specială merită articolele, conjuncțiile și prepozițiile (deci așa-numitele "instrumente gramaticale") precum și pronumele sau numeralele, care sînt aproape fără excepție de origine latină. Dintre ultimele, *sută* este de proveniență slavă, chiar dacă, pentru a explica prezența lui *u*, întîmpinăm unele dificultăți.

Un alt fapt care merită să fie relevat (și care e strîns legat de cele spuse mai sus) este că majoritatea cuvintelor moștenite din limba latină cunosc o frecvență superioară elementelor de alte origini. Deoarece în stabilirea apartenenței unui cuvînt la fondul principal lexical se ține seamă în primul rînd de frecvență, nu e de mirare că aproape 60% din vocabularul românesc fundamental conține elemente de origine latină.

3.2 Se poate spune că este meritul lui Bogdan Petriceicu Hasdeu de a fi arătat că frecvența sau circulația cuvintelor are o mare importanță pentru determinarea fizionomiei lexicale a unei limbi. Criticînd o veche clasificare etimologică a lui A. de Cihac (care găsise că 2/5 din cuvintele românești sînt de origine slavă), B. P. Hasdeu a văzut cel dintîi defectul tuturor statisticilor care pun pe același plan cuvinte inegale ca volum semantic și ca forţă circulatorie. Pentru limba engleză, a procedat în felul acesta Thommerel, care, în 1841, a făcut o statistică lexicală, avînd la bază dicţionarul lui Robertson. Din datele (cu totul depăşite astăzi) ale acestei statistici, rezultă că 29.854 dintre cuvintele englezeşti sînt de provenienţă romanică şi numai 13.330 au origine germanică. Comentînd aceste cifre (ca şi metoda lui Thommerel), Hasdeu arată în mod just că nu trebuie să figureze alături "cuvintele întrebuinţate o dată pe an" cu cele care se folosesc în fiecare zi. În acelaşi studiu, intitulat *Limba în circulaţiune,* el precizează, iarăşi în mod just, că "prin necontenită întrebuinţare" germanismele s-au redus la monosilabe, s-au ramificat în numeroase familii etimologice şi au dobîndit o mulţime de semnificaţii. Astfel, verbul *to get* - spune Hasdeu - "are peste patruzeci de sensuri diverse, adică corespunde cu peste 40 de cuvinte deosebite! Nu este oare curios de a pune pe germanicul *to get*, repetat la tot momentul, în aceeaşi cumpănă cu vreo raritate ca *dissembarrassment* sau *imprescriptibility* ori *jactitation,* ca şi cînd ar fi 1 = 1, deoarece în dicţionar ele apar fiecare ca o unitate egală?" Cu deplină dreptate, Hasdeu consideră că munca lui Thommerel a fost "colosală", dar fără vreun rezultat serios.

În ceea ce priveşte limba română, cercetările care au fost efectuate ulterior cu ajutorul metodei statistice i-au dat dreptate celebrului nostru lingvist şi filolog, punînd din nou în lumină superioritatea valorică a elementului latin în raport cu elementele lexicale de alte origini. Astfel, încă din 1942, într-o altă statistică a sa, D. Macrea a arătat că poeziile pe care Eminescu le-a publicat în timpul vieţii nu cuprind decît 3.607 cuvinte, care au însă o circulaţie totală de 33.846. Ceea ce este demn de remarcat e faptul că elementele latineşti apar într-un procent mult mai mare decît cele slave, maghiare, greceşti etc., iar în circulaţie (deci sub raportul frecvenţei) ele sînt şi mai bine reprezentate. Dintre cele 32 de grupe, în care pot fi repartizate după origine cuvintele folosite de Eminescu, ne interesează în special primele trei în ordinea importanţei:

- *latine:* 48,68% (în vocabular) şi 83% în circulaţie;
- *slave:* 16,81% (în vocabular) şi 6,93% în circulaţie;
- *franceze:* 11,97% (în vocabular) şi 2,52% în circulaţie.

3.3 Mai semnificativ decît aceste date, care ar putea părea discutabile, e faptul ușor verificabil că la Eminescu se pot găsi strofe și chiar poezii întregi în care poetul folosește aproape exclusiv cuvinte de origine latină. Astfel, primele patru versuri din *Mai am un singur dor* nu conțin decît un singur element derivativ slav, și anume sufixul *-iște*, atașat și acesta la o rădăcină latină (e vorba de adjectivul *lin* de la care s-a format substantivul *liniște*). Tot așa, în prima strofă din poezia *Pe lîngă plopii fără soț* nu există decît cuvinte latinești, iar în alte creații eminesciene de mare valoare artistică și filozofică numărul elementelor de origine latină formează o majoritate zdrobitoare (vezi *Și dacă, La steaua, Peste vîrfuri* etc.). Constatarea aceasta amintește de o observație similară pe care a făcut-o Mihail Sadoveanu cu privire la ceea ce am putea numi latinitatea vocabularului românesc, în general, și a celui eminescian, în special: "Deschideți la poezia *Somnoroase păsărele* și numărați cîte cuvinte străine de latinitate cuprinde. Poezia aceasta se poate traduce într-o limbă neolatină, păstrînd în paralelă, originalul, pentru a dovedi în cel mai simplu și mai magistral chip ceea ce istoricii și filologii se trudesc să demonstreze laborios" (M. Sadoveanu, *Opere,* vol. XX, p. 280).

BIBLIOGRAFIE: *Istoria limbii române,* București, 1969, vol. II, cap. *Lexicul* (redactor I. Coteanu), p. 293-309; B. Petriceicu-Hasdeu, *Etymologicum Magnum Romaniae* (ediție îngrijită de Grigore Brâncuș), București, 1972, vol. I, p.32-42; D. Macrea, *Op.cit.,* p. 39-45; Al. Graur, *Încercare asupra fondului principal lexical al limbii române,* București, 1954, p. 47-56 et passim.

IV. Elemente autohtone în vocabularul românesc

4.0 După cucerirea și transformarea Daciei în provincie romană (anul 106 al erei noastre), populația acestei provincii a fost asimilată treptat de cuceritori și de coloniștii aduși aici, iar limba latină și civilizația superioară a romanilor au triumfat cu o relativă ușurință.

Nu încape îndoială că, deși limba populației aborigene se deosebea mult de latină, ea a putut s-o influențeze pe aceasta din urmă, fie și într-o măsură foarte mică. Totalitatea elementelor lingvistice păstrate din vorbirea populațiilor care au ocupat, cîndva, teritoriul daco-moesian constituie *influența autohtonă* sau substratul limbii române. Ceea ce am moștenit din latină alcătuiește așa-zisul strat al limbii noastre, peste care s-au adăugat, ulterior, o serie de influențe străine: slavă, maghiară, turcă, greacă etc.

Din păcate, elementele lingvistice transmise din vorbirea geto-dacilor (care erau o ramură a tracilor) sînt foarte greu de identificat, deoarece traca este o limbă neatestată. Se cunosc, desigur, o serie de *nume proprii* de origine geto-dacă (adică toponime, hidronime, antroponime, etnonime şi teonime), s-au păstrat, de asemenea, 57 de *nume de plante* (menţionate şi glosate în două tratate de botanică medicinală), au fost descifrate (într-un mod nu tocmai sigur) şi cîteva *inscripţii* daco-moesiene, dar limba, în ansamblul ei, a rămas necunoscută.

4.1 Dacă în fonetică şi în morfologie influenţa substratului este redusă şi, la drept vorbind, nesigură, în domeniul vocabularului ea este mult mai importantă şi mai uşor de dovedit. Cel mai serios criteriu de identificare a cuvintelor de substrat, în limba română, rămîne, indiscutabil, comparaţia cu albaneza. După opinia celor mai mulţi specialişti, albanezii de astăzi sînt, fie continuatorii ilirilor, fie (mult mai probabil) ai tracilor. Conform celei mai răspîndite păreri, atît ilirii, cît şi tracii vorbeau limbi înrudite şi aparţineau aceleiaşi ramuri indo-europene. Întrucît şi geto-dacii erau tot traci, urmează că limba vorbită de aceştia era foarte asemănătoare cu aceea pe care o vorbeau strămoşii actualilor albanezi. În alţi termeni, româna şi albaneza ar avea un substrat comun, ceea ce permite şi îndreptăţeşte compararea celor două limbi din punctul de vedere care ne interesează.

În ultima vreme, s-a subliniat cu dreptate că, pentru obţinerea unor rezultate cît mai concludente, e necesar să fie comparate formele existente în fazele vechi şi foarte vechi ale celor două limbi, nu cele din româna şi albaneza contemporană. Astfel, lui *brad* îi corespunde în româna comună o formă *bradzu*, care e mai apropiată de vechiul albanez *bradh* decît de actualul *bredh*. Tot aşa în româna comună s-a folosit un adjectiv *bardzu* "alb, bălţat" (care există şi astăzi în dialectul aromân şi căruia în albaneză îi corespunde *barth*). De la acestea trebuie să pornim pentru a-l explica pe *barză*, care nu este altceva decît forma feminină substantivată a vechiului adjectiv românesc.

În urma precizărilor făcute, adăugăm că un cuvînt românesc nu poate fi considerat autohton decît dacă îndeplineşte următoarele condiţii fundamentale:

(a) să nu fie transmis din latină şi nici împrumutat din vreo limbă cu care româna a venit în contact; (b) să existe în albaneză şi, eventual, în alte limbi de origine indo-europeană; (c) să nu fie împrumutat de români din albaneză ori de albanezi din română şi nici de ambele popoare dintr-o limbă comună. În continuare înşirăm numai o parte dintre cuvintele româneşti care sînt socotite ca aparţinînd substratului şi care au fost identificate cu ajutorul acestei metode: *abur, balaur, barză, brad, bucura, căciulă, cătun, ceafă, cioară, cioc, coacăză, copil, cursă* "capcană", *fărîmă, fluier, gălb(e)ază* (cu varianta *călbează*), *gard, gata, ghimpe, ghionoaie, groapă, grumaz, măgură, mărar, moaşă* (din care s-a refăcut masc. *moş*), *mugur, năpîrcă, pîrîu* (cu varianta veche şi etimologică *părău*), *pupăză, searbăd* (a cărui formă veche a fost *sarbăd*), *sîmbure, ţap, ţarc, urdă, vatră, viezure* etc.

Prin extinderea comparaţiei la alte limbi indo-europene (de exemplu balto-slave, armeană şi în special vechi balcanice) metoda de cercetare a fost îmbunătăţită, iar lista cuvintelor româneşti autohtone s-a îmbogăţit cu: *baltă, buză, doină, mal, mînz, strungă* şi altele, pe care le considerăm mai puţin importante sau a căror etimologie continuă să fie foarte incertă. E limpede că, atunci cînd cuvîntul românesc şi cel albanez au corespondente în plan indo-european, nimic nu mai îndreptăţeşte presupunerea unui împrumut din albaneză în română sau din română în albaneză. Cel puţin în astfel de cazuri, cuvîntul respectiv constituie un element de substrat în ambele limbi.

Tot de origine autohtonă sînt considerate şi cîteva sufixe, dintre care nu vom menţiona decît pe cele mai importante şi mai sigure: *-esc, -ăni, -(u)ş(ă),* pe care îl avem, spre exemplu, în *brînduşă,* apoi *-z(ă),* comparabil cu alb. *-zë* lituan. *-(u)za* etc. şi *-man* (din cuvinte ca: *gogoman, hotoman, ortoman*). Cele mai productive dintre aceste sufixe sînt, desigur, *-esc* şi *-ăni,* primul sufix adjectival (*boieresc, ţărănesc*), iar al doilea verbal (*bocăni, troncăni, zdupăni* etc.).

4.2 După statistica citată a lui D. Macrea elementele lexicale comune cu albaneza reprezintă 0,93% din vocabularul limbii române moderne (adică 461 de cuvinte). Dintre acestea, 81 sînt cuvinte de bază, iar 380 constituie variante şi derivate pe teren românesc. Fără a acorda prea mare importanţă acestor cifre, vom recunoaşte, totuşi, că rezultatele statisticii lui D. Macrea sînt, dintr-un anumit punct de vedere, foarte revelatoare. Fie şi cu aproximaţie, ele arată că elementele comune cu albaneza cunosc mai multe derivate şi variante chiar decît cuvintele româneşti moştenite din latină. Această proporţie atît de favorabilă dovedeşte o dată mai mult că există un raport direct între vechimea în limbă a unui cuvînt şi capacitatea lui de a-şi crea derivate.

BIBLIOGRAFIE: *Istoria limbii române*, vol. II, capitolul *Influenţa autohtonă* (redactor C. Poghirc), p. 313-365; A. Philippide, *Originea românilor*, vol. II (*Ce spun limbile română şi albaneză*), Iaşi, 1927; Al. Rosetti, *op. cit.* (p. 259-276); I. I. Rusu, *Limba traco-dacilor* (ediţia a II-a), Bucureşti, 1967 (în special p. 187-222); Gr. Brâncuş, *Probleme ale reconstrucţiei elementelor lexicale autohtone in româna comună*, în SCL, an. XVII (1960), nr. 2, p. 205-218 etc.

V. Împrumuturi lexicale de origine slavă

5.0 Judecînd după datele oferite de statistica lui D. Macrea, aproximativ 14% dintre cuvintele româneşti înregistrate în DLRM sînt de provenienţă slavă. În cadrul acestora, 7,98% reprezintă elemente *vechi slave*, iar restul constituie împrumuturi de origine *bulgară*, *sîrbo-croată*, *bulgaro-sîrbească*, *rusă*, *ucraineană* şi *polonă*.

O diferenţă clară între împrumuturile slave vechi şi cele ulterioare nu este întotdeauna uşor de făcut, după cum nu e prea uşor să distingem, în toate cazurile, între împrumuturile făcute pe cale orală sau populară (*sfîrşi*, *iubi*, *drag*, *prieten*, *boală* etc.) şi cele pătrunse prin intermediul scrisului, adică pe cale cărturărească: *săvîrşi* (dubletul etimologic al lui *sfîrşi*), *citi*, *blagoslovi*, *predoslovie*, *sobor* (cu sensul de "adunare, sinod") ş.a.m.d. În continuare, vom judeca elementele slave fără să avem în vedere distincţiile care au fost relevate mai sus şi care, la drept vorbind, nu sînt fundamentale pentru ceea ce urmărim să demonstrăm în discuţia de faţă.

Mai important ni se pare însă procentul general de 14,08% pe care îl dă D. Macrea şi care, în realitate, ar putea fi mai mic sau mai mare. Fără a acorda acestui procent o atenţie exagerată şi fără a-l comenta mai pe larg, vom recunoaşte, din capul locului, că - în ansamblul ei - influenţa slavă a fost extraordinar de puternică, însă ea nu a afectat decît într-o foarte mică măsură sistemul fonologic şi structura gramaticală a limbii române. În timp ce acestea şi-au conservat aproape intact caracterul lor latin, vocabularul a fost invadat pur şi simplu de elemente slave vechi şi tîrzii, pe care nu le putem cerceta aici în toată bogăţia şi importanţa lor.

5.1 De la slavi (cu care am convieţuit şi care au pătruns pe teritoriul României de azi prin secolul al VI-lea), ne-au rămas cuvinte din cele mai variate domenii de activitate, începînd cu agricultura (*plug*, *brazdă*, *ogor*, *pogon* etc.) şi terminînd cu dregătoriile de altădată. Dintre numele marilor dregători ai statului feudal muntean şi moldovean pot fi citate: *logofăt*, *postelnic*, *stolnic*, *vornic*, *vistiernic* şi altele. Astfel de nume provin de la statele sud-slave, care au copiat, la rîndul lor, organizaţia curţii bizantine. Alături de terminologia agricolă şi de cea politico-socială, tot slavilor le datorăm şi o bogată terminologie religioasă: *duh*, *rai*, *iad*, *sfînt*, *proroc*, *mucenic*, *popă*, *vlădică*, *stareţ*, *schimnic*, *cazanie*, *molitvelnic*, *utrenie*, *vecernie* şi altele, a căror origine mai îndepărtată este grecească (vezi şi 8.2).

În funcţie de clasele lexico-gramaticale cărora le aparţin, cele mai uzuale împrumuturi de origine slavă se pot grupa după cum urmează: substantive (*babă*, *boală*, *boier*, *ceas*, *ceată*, *coajă*, *colţ*, *dar*, *glas*, *grădină*, *grijă*, *groază*, *izvor*, *milă*, *muncă*, *nădejde*, *nărav*, *necaz*, *nisip*, *noroc*, *obicei*, *pagubă*, *plată*, *praf*, *prieten*, *scîrbă*, *spor*, *steag*, *sticlă*, *temei*, *tovarăş*, *trup*, *veac*, *veste*, *vîrf*, *vîrstă*, *vrăjmaş*, *zid*, *zvon* etc.); adjective: *bogat*, *bolnav*, *calic*, *drag*, *gol*, *groaznic*, *grozav*, *lacom*, *mîndru*, *pestriţ*, *sărac*, *scump*, *scund*, *slab*, *straşnic*, *ştirb*, *treaz*, *ţeapăn*, *vesel*, *voinic*, *vrednic*, *zdravăn* etc.); verbe: *citi*, *clădi*, *dovedi*, *grăbi*, *grăi*, *greşi*, *hrăni*, *iubi*, *izbi*, *îndrăzni*, *lipi*, *munci*, *năvăli*, *nimeri*, *obosi*, *opri*, *osteni*, *otrăvi*, *părăsi*, *păzi*, *porni*, *porunci*, *risipi*, *săvîrşi*, *sfîrşi*, *strădui*, *topi*, *trăi*, *trăsni*, *zgîrci* şi multe altele, care nu se mai folosesc în româna contemporană.

Impresionaţi de numărul atît de mare al cuvintelor de origine slavă, unii lingvişti străini au crezut, cîndva, că româna este un idiom mixt ori amestecat, un fel de limbă "romano-slavă" (cum o socotea, de exemplu, Gustav Weigand). Ceea ce a mai contribuit la formarea acestei false impresii a fost şi faptul că pînă la 1860, în Muntenia, şi 1862, în Moldova, s-a scris la noi cu alfabet chirilic. În ceea ce privește *slavona*, aceasta a fost folosită ca limbă oficială și de cult religios pînă prin secolul al XVI-lea, cînd româna a început s-o înlocuiască treptat, păstrînd, totuși, alfabetul chirilic. Se poate afirma cu certitudine că împreună cu numeroasele cuvinte de origine slavă, alfabetul chirilic a mascat, măcar în parte, caracterul latin al limbii române.

5.2 Dovada că, înainte de contactul masiv cu slavii, româna era, în linii mari, formată trebuie s-o căutăm în faptul că elementele de origine slavă nu au suferit legile fonetice caracteristice acestei limbi. Astfel, *l* intervocalic s-a schimbat în *r* numai în cuvintele de origine latină (*solem> soare*, *gulam> gură* etc.), nu și în cele slave, care au conservat această consoană, cum dovedesc numeroasele exemple de felul lui *boală, milă, silă* și altele.

Pe de altă parte, verbele de origine slavă pe care le-am înregistrat mai sus se conjugă după un model latinesc: *hrăn-esc, munc-esc, iub-esc, plăt-esc* etc. Elementul flexionar *-esc* (la care s-ar putea adăuga multe altele) nu reprezintă altceva decît sufixul latinesc *-isc-*. Tot așa, substantivele *ceas, glas, trup, prieten* etc. primesc articolul *-(u)l*, care s-a format, in românește, din pronumele demonstrativ latin *ille*.

5.3 În concluzie se poate spune că bogatul material lexical împrumutat din slavă (și mai tîrziu din alte limbi) a fost "turnat" în tipare latinești preexistente. Mai mult decît orice, acest fapt are o importanță capitală în determinarea caracterului latin al limbii române.

BIBLIOGRAFIE: Ovid Densusianu, *op. cit.*, vol. I, p. 159-189; Al. Rosetti, *op. cit.*, p. 308-326; Sextil Pușcariu, *Limba română*, vol. I, București, 1940, p. 277-300; G. Mihăilă, *Împrumuturi vechi sud-slave în limba română*, București, 1960.

VI. Împrumuturi de origine maghiară

6.0 Cu oarecare aproximație se poate afirma că începuturile influenței maghiare asupra vocabularului românesc datează de prin secolul al XI-lea. În urma constituirii statului feudal ungar (pe la sfîrșitul veacului al X-lea) acesta și-a extins stăpînirea asupra Transilvaniei, cucerind formațiunile statale românești existente în această provincie.

Influența maghiară a început să se accentueze după ce majoritatea populaţiei româneşti din Transilvania a fost adusă în stare de dependenţă faţă de cuceritori. Ceea ce a mai contribuit la intensificarea ulterioară a acestei influenţe au fost şi colonizările pe care statul feudal maghiar le-a făcut în Transilvania, cu scopul de a-şi consolida stăpînirea asupra acestei provincii.

6.1 În general vorbind, elementele lexicale de origine maghiară pot fi împărţite în două mari categorii: o parte care se întîlnesc exclusiv în graiurile din Transilvania şi o altă parte care sînt folosite pe întregul teritoriu lingvistic dacoromân. Dintre cele dintîi pot fi amintite, spre exemplu: *bai* "necaz", *bolînd* "nebun, smintit", *făgădău* "han, ospătărie, cîrciumă", *gealău* "rindea", *ilău* "nicovală", *sămădău* "persoană care ţine contabilitatea cuiva", *ponoslui* "a ponegri, a defăima" şi multe altele, care nu prezintă prea mare interes tocmai pentru că au caracter regional.

Spre deosebire de acestea, alte împrumuturi din maghiară au devenit ori tind să devină populare, ceea ce înseamnă că se întrebuinţează şi în alte provincii, nu numai în Transilvania, fără a putea fi, totuşi, considerate literare. În această situaţie sînt: *alean* "dor, melancolie", *aldămaş* (rostit prin metateză şi *adălmaş*), *imaş* "izlaz, păsune" sau *vileag* "lume, mulţime de oameni", folosit îndeosebi în expresia *a da în vileag* "a face cunoscut, a divulga". Alături de *vileag* ar putea fi pus *fedeleş*, atestat în mai toate regiunile ţării, de obicei cu sensul de "butoi mic de forme diferite, în care se ţine sau se transportă apa". În afara mediului rural, ceilalţi vorbitori de limbă română cunosc acest cuvînt în special din expresia *a lega* (pe cineva) *fedeleş* (adică foarte strîns).

6.2 Cele mai interesante şi mai importante împrumuturi de origine maghiară sînt, desigur, acelea care pot fi considerate generale şi, totodată, literare în limba română actuală. Iată mai întîi o listă bogată (însă nu şi completă) de substantive: *belşug, chin, chip, fel, gazdă, gînd* (pătruns, probabil, prin filieră slavă), *ham, heleşteu, hotar* (de la care a fost derivat verbul *hotărî*, iniţial cu sensul de "a trage un hotar"), *labă, lacăt, lăcătuş, lăcaş* (modificat în *locaş* sub influenţa lui *loc* < lat. *locus*), *meşter* şi *meşteşug, neam, oraş, pildă, raită, răvaş, sălaş, seamă* (rostit în limba veche şi în cea populară *samă*), apoi *sicriu, şoim, talpă, tobă, vamă* şi altele. La acestea ar putea fi adăugate adjectivele: *gingaş*, *uriaş* şi *viclean* (care este, de fapt, o rostire "hipercorectă" în loc de mai vechiul *hiclean*, provenit, la rîndul lui, din magh. *hitlen*). Dintre verbele cu rădăcină maghiară, cele mai multe au primit, în limba română, sufixul *-ui*, care este de origine slavă. Cităm dintre acestea: *alcătui*, *bănui*, *birui*, *bîntui*, *cheltui*, *chibzui*, *făgădui*, *tăgădui* etc.

6.3 Tot din maghiară am primit şi cîteva sufixe, în general neproductive în limba actuală. Cele care se explică exclusiv prin această limbă sînt *-şug* (din *beteşug*, *meşteşug*, *vicleşug* şi altele), *-şag* (cu ajutorul căruia s-au format *rămăşag*, *vălmăşag* etc.) şi *-ău* (pe care îl avem în cuvinte ca *ferăstrău*, *mestecău*, *nătărău*, *făgădău*, *sămădău* şi altele, dintre care unele sînt împrumutate direct din maghiară).

6.4 Ultima chestiune care mai trebuie lămurită este prezenţa unui număr relativ mare de elemente lexicale maghiare pe întregul teritoriu lingvistic dacoromân. Dintre savanţii români, în special Ovid Densusianu a arătat că generalizarea unor cuvinte maghiare, în limba noastră, se explică uşor dacă ne amintim trecutul istoric al ţărilor româneşti. După cum se ştie, între populaţia din Transilvania (singura care a convieţuit cu ungurii) şi cea din Moldova sau Ţara Românească au existat legături permanente şi variate, începînd cu cele determinate de mişcările de transhumanţă ale păstorilor români şi terminînd cu relaţiile de ordin politic, economic şi cultural dintre cele trei mari provincii româneşti. În afară de relaţiile amintite, mai trebuie avute în vedere şi schimburile de populaţie sau colonizările propriu-zise. Astfel, foarte mulţi moldoveni şi munteni nu sînt altceva decît urmaşii colonistilor români emigraţi din Transilvania. Tot aşa, conform unor statistici efectuate după anul 1878, aproximativ 80.000 dintre locuitorii Dobrogei sînt veniţi tot din Transilvania. În felul acesta, nu este deloc de mirare că o bună parte dintre elementele maghiare pătrunse mai întîi în vorbirea românilor din Ardeal s-au răspîndit şi în celelalte regiuni ale ţării, devenind o parte integrantă a vocabularului românesc general.

BIBLIOGRAFIE: Ovid Densusianu, *Istoria limbii române*, Vol. I, p. 237-242; Al. Rosetti, *op. cit.*, p. 415-422; Sextil Puşcariu, *op. cit.*, p. 310-314 et passim; Francisc Király, *Fonetica împrumuturilor româneşti de origine maghiară* (rezumatul tezei de doctorat), Timişoara, 1970.

VII. Împrumuturi de origine turcească

7.0 Următoarea influență veche, asupra căreia e necesar să ne oprim, fie şi pe scurt, este influența turcă osmanlie. Ea a început să se manifeste asupra limbii române prin secolul al XVI-lea, deci după ce Țara Românească şi Moldova au devenit vasale Imperiului otoman. După inaugurarea dominației turceşti, domnitorii români au fost, la început, confirmați prin învestitura sultanului, iar apoi numiți direct de Poarta otomană. Interesați fiind în menținerea suzeranității şi a realizării celor mai diverse profituri, turcii au monopolizat întregul comerț exterior al țărilor române, impunîndu-le acestora o triplă dominație: politică, administrativă şi economică.

7.1 În timpul *epocii fanariote* (care a durat de la 1711 pînă la 1821), influența turcă a atins punctul culminant, ca de altfel şi cea neogreacă, despre care va fi vorba imediat. Întrucît populația românească, aparținînd tuturor categoriilor sociale, a fost obligată să intre în contact cu administrația otomană, limba română s-a îmbogățit în primul rînd pe plan strict lexical şi, în al doilea rînd, în domeniul formării cuvintelor prin procedeul derivării cu sufixe.

Cuvintele împrumutate din turcă au avut, fie caracter popular, fie caracter oficial. Cele din ultima categorie au fost introduse şi, uneori, impuse de numeroşii funcționari turci şi greci pe care Poarta otomană îi avea în permanență în cele două principate române. După înlăturarea stăpînirii fanariote, termenii politici, administrativi şi militari de origine turcească au început să iasă din uz, iar după proclamarea independenței Țărilor române au dispărut chiar definitiv. În această situație sînt, spre exemplu: *agă, paşă, caimacam* "locțiitor de domn", *capuchehaie* "reprezentant al domnitorilor români la Constantinopol", *haraci* "tribut anual plătit turcilor", *hochim* "ordin scris care emana direct de la sultan", *tergiman* "tălmaci, interpret", *buiurdismă* "rezoluție", *geremea* "amendă, pedeapsă în bani" şi multe altele, pe care nu le mai menționăm, tocmai fiindcă au dispărut pentru totdeauna.

7.2 Elementele turceşti care au fost asimilate de limbă, devenind chiar populare, sînt mult mai numeroase, mai importante şi mai interesante. O clasificare a lor pe sfere semantice sau după domeniile cărora le aparţin noţiunile pe care le denumesc ar fi desigur instructivă, însă ar ocupa prea mult spaţiu. Din această cauză ne mulţumim cu enumerarea împrumuturilor turceşti dintr-un singur domeniu şi anume acela al alimentaţiei: *acadea*, folosit de obicei la plural (*acadele*) cu sensul de "bomboane făcute din zahăr topit", *baclava* (numele unei prăjituri), *cafea* (care a devenit un termen internaţional), *caşcaval* (în turcă de origine italiană), *cataif*, *chebap*, *chiftea* (cu varianta învechită *cheftea* şi cu cea neliterară *piftea*), *ciorbă*, *ciulama*, *ghiveci*, *halva*, *iahnie*, *iaurt*, *iofca*, *magiun*, *musaca*, *peltea* (cu varianta *beltea*), *pilaf*, *rachiu*, *rahat*, *sarailie*, *sarma*, *susan*, *şerbet*, *telemea*, *tuslama* "mîncare preparată din burtă şi din picioare de vacă" etc.

7.3 După cum s-a putut observa chiar din exemplele citate în această lungă listă, multe împrumuturi de origine turcească se pot recunoaşte după terminaţia lor, care este, foarte adesea, *á* sau *eá*. Iată noi fapte (din alte domenii) pe care le adăugăm la cele menţionate mai înainte: *balamá*, *basmá*, *biná*, *cazmá*, *cherhaná*, *haimaná*, *macará*, *mucavá*, *muşamá*, *mahalá*, *paftá*, *pará*, *şandramá*, *zalhaná* etc. Dintre cele terminate în *eá* (de asemenea foarte numeroase) cităm pe: *beleá*, *luleá*, *ghiuleá*, *cheresteá*, *duşumeá*, *cerceveá* (cu varinatele *gergevea* şi *giurgiuvea*), apoi *pătlăgeá*, *peruzeá*, *safteá*, *tejgheá* şi altele, care arată cît de numeroase şi variate sînt domeniile în care s-a manifestat influenţa turcă osmanlie.

7.4 Multe cuvinte de origine turcă sînt foarte uzuale chiar în româna contemporană. La cele deja amintite mai adăugăm cîteva care fac parte din vocabularul fundamental al limbii române actuale: *chef*, *chiar*, *chirie*, *ciomag*, *cîntar*, *hai*, *moft*, *murdar*, *pará*, *soi* şi *zor* (frecvent în diverse locuţiuni şi expresii).

7.5 În încheiere, menţionăm că tot din turcă am primit şi unele sufixe care au fost cîndva productive: *-giu* (din *laptagiu*), *-liu* (din *hazliu*) şi *-lîc* (din *haimanalîc*, *savantlîc* etc.). În urma acestei precizări, se întregeşte ideea generală pe care trebuie să ne-o facem despre influenţa turcă osmanlie, a cărei acţiune a încetat definitiv, după ce România şi-a dobîndit independenţa de stat, în anul 1877.

BIBLIOGRAFIE: L. Şăineanu, *Influenţa orientală asupra limbei şi*

culturei române, I (*Introducerea*) şi II (*Vocabularul*), Bucureşti, 1901 şi urm., Al. Rosetti, B. Cazacu şi Liviu Onu, *Istoria limbii române literare* (ediţia a II-a), Bucureşti, 1971, vol. I, p. 408-423; Heinz F. Wendt, *Die türkischen Elemente im Rumänischen*, Berlin, 1960 şi recenzia lui Vl. Drimba la această lucrare, în SCL, XIV (1963), nr. 4, p. 514-525.

VIII. Împrumuturi de origine grecească

8.0 Anterior şi, apoi, paralel cu influenţa turcă osmanlie, s-a exercitat asupra limbii române influenţa grecească, ale cărei urme se mai văd şi astăzi tot în domeniul vocabularului. Faptul că această influenţă a crescut o dată cu stăpînirea turcească se explică prin aceea că, alături de comandanţii turci, veneau, în Muntenia şi Moldova, o serie de funcţionari greci, care îndeplineau diverse slujbe şi, în primul rînd, pe aceea de interpreţi. Mai tîrziu, Poarta otomană a început să numească, în principatele române, domnitori greci, cunoscuţi sub numele de "fanarioţi". Denumirea aceasta provine de la cartierul *Fanar* din Constantinopol, unde locuiau reprezentanţii nobilimii greceşti intrate în slujba sultanilor turci, după căderea imperiului bizantin (1453).

8.1 Printre cuvintele româneşti de origine grecească deosebim două straturi mai importante, corespunzînd celor două perioade şi deci aspecte fundamentale pe care le cunoaşte această influenţă asupra limbii române. E vorba, mai întîi, de influenţa greacă veche sau bizantină (care s-a exercitat asupra românei aproximativ între secolele al VII-lea şi al XV-lea) şi, apoi, de influenţa greacă modernă, numită încă şi neogreacă. Întrucît nu dispunem de texte scrise în limba română mai devreme de secolul al XVI-lea, în multe cazuri e greu de ştiut dacă un cuvînt grecesc aparţine perioadei bizantine sau neogreceşti. Tot aşa, de multe ori nu ştim exact dacă elementele lexicale greceşti ne-au venit direct din această limbă sau prin filieră slavă (ca în cazul lui *drum, crin, colibă, sfeclă* şi altele).

Este un lucru general admis că, pînă la contactul direct şi mai strîns cu grecii, o serie de termeni bizantini au pătruns, în limba română, prin intermediul slavilor de miazăzi, care formau mase compacte ce despărţeau lumea grecească şi populaţia romanizată din ţinuturile dunărene. Începînd cu secolul al X-lea, am primit pe această cale în special termeni religioşi de origine grecească. După cum se ştie, atît slavii din sudul Dunării, cît şi bulgarii asimilaţi de aceştia au adoptat creştinismul de rit bizantin. Introducerea liturghiei la slavi şi apoi (prin intermediul acestora la români), precum şi constituirea unei ierarhii bisericeşti după modelul celei bulgare s-au soldat cu crearea unei bogate terminologii ecleziastice (în sensul cel mai larg al cuvîntului): *acatist, arhiepiscop, arhiereu, arhimandrit, egumen, evanghelie, icoană, ieromonah, liturghie, mănăstire, mătanie, mitră, mitropolit, mitropolie, paraclis, patrafir, patriarh, protopop, psalm, smirnă* şi altele. Deşi cărţile de ritual foloseau limba slavonă, unii ierarhi erau greci de origine, deci prin ei influenţa bizantină s-a putut manifesta şi direct, nu numai prin mijlocire slavă. Iată de ce, pentru o bună parte dintre termenii citaţi mai sus, este preferabil să admitem o dublă provenienţă: slavă şi bizantină.

În ceea ce priveşte elementele de origine neogreacă, acestea sînt mult mai numeroase şi au intrat, în limba română, o dată cu pătrunderea culturii greceşti în Muntenia şi în Moldova. Această cultură (la care, în general vorbind, nu aveau acces decît clerul şi clasa boierească) a pătruns la noi prin biserică, prin şcoală, prin cancelariile domneşti (care se foloseau de cărturari greci) şi prin numeroasele traduceri care s-au făcut din greceşte în româneşte. Întrucît perioada de influenţă maximă a limbii neogreceşti corespunde indiscutabil epocii fanariote (1711-1821), se obişnuieşte ca împrumuturile din neogreacă să fie împărţite în două categorii, care nu pot fi întotdeauna strict delimitate. E vorba de împrumuturile anterioare epocii fanariote şi de cele efectualte în decursul acestei perioade.

Mai ales între 1780 şi 1821 se deschid la noi şcoli greceşti, boierii angajează preceptori greci pentru fiii lor (care adeseori nu mai ştiu să vorbească şi să scrie româneşte), iar în cancelariile domneşti şi în majoritatea bisericilor limba slavonă este înlocuită cu neogreaca. În aceste condiţii nu e de mirare că au pătruns, în limba română, foarte multe cuvinte greceşti, iar protipendada celor două principate a adoptat chiar un fel de jargon grecizat care va fi ridiculizat, mai tîrziu, de către unii dintre poeţii şi scriitorii noştri din secolul al XIX-lea. Însuşi cuvîntul *protipendadă* (care literal înseamnă "prima cincime") datează din această epocă. Sensul lui iniţial a fost de "boierime alcătuită din cele cinci ranguri mai înalte de funcţionari ai statului": logofăt, vornic, hatman, postelnic şi agă).

8.3 Asemenea împrumuturilor de origine turcă, şi cele greceşti se pot recunoaşte, uneori, după partea lor finală (de exemplu sufixul *-icos* în *plicticos, politicos, simandicos, tacticos, nevricos* şi *economicos* sau *-isi* în: *aerisi, agonisi, chivernisi, plictisi, sinchisi, molipsi, zaharisi, silabisi* etc.).

8.4 Elementele de origine neogreacă pot fi clasificate, pe de o parte în funcţie de domeniul în care s-au folosit ori se mai folosesc, încă, iar, pe de altă parte, în funcţie de caracterul lor cult (*diată, rigă, plastograf, partidă, tipografie, catagrafie* etc.) ori popular şi familiar (*taifas, sindrofie, lefter* şi altele). Fără a intra în amănunte, vom spune că majoritatea împrumuturilor neogreceşti au avut şi unele continuă să aibă şi azi un caracter livresc sau cult spre deosebire de cele turceşti care au fost în bună parte asimilate de limba populară.

BIBLIOGRAFIE: L. Gáldi, *Les mots d'origine néo-greque en roumain*, Budapest, 1939; H. Mihăescu, *Influenţa grecească asupra limbii române pînă în secolul al XV-lea*, Bucureşti, 1966; Al. Rosetti, B. Cazacu şi Liviu Onu, *op. cit.*, p. 426-438.

IX. Fondul lexical neologic

9.0 Totalitatea împrumuturilor lexicale care au contribuit la *îmbogăţirea*, *modernizarea* şi, într-o mare măsură, chiar *relatinizarea* vocabularului românesc constituie "fondul lexical neologic" al limbii române. Ceea ce trebuie reţinut de la început în legătură cu neologismele româneşti este că aproape toate denumesc noţiuni "culte" ori "savante", aparţinînd celor mai diverse domenii ale vieţii materiale şi spirituale. Iată numai cîteva exemple dintre cele care încep cu prima literă a alfabetului: *abces, abscisă, absolutism, accent, almanah, amnezie, analiză, arcadă, asediu, aspira, audia, atom, atrofie, avangardă, axiomă, azbest, azot* etc.

Etimologic vorbind, prin neologism înţelegem orice cuvînt nou apărut într-o limbă oarecare, indiferent dacă acesta e un împrumut sau reprezintă o creaţie prin mijloacele proprii ale limbii respective. Dacă în lingvistica generală termenul *neologism* se foloseşte cu această accepţie, pe care o putem numi "etimologică", în lingvistica românească sînt socotite neologisme în special împrumuturile culte sau livreşti pe care româna le-a făcut din limbile apusene ori direct din latină pe cale savantă. Un număr relativ mic de neologisme (a căror origine este latino-romanică şi germanică) le-am primit, încă din secolele al XVII-lea şi al XVIII-lea, prin intermediul limbilor polonă, rusă şi neogreacă. Aceasta înseamnă că la constituirea vocabularului neologic românesc au contribuit foarte multe limbi, dar nu vom examina aici decît influenţele mai importante şi cu adevărat moderne.

9.1 În ordine cronologică, prima dintre aceste influenţe este cea latină savantă, ale cărei începuturi timide (legate în special de activitatea cronicarilor noştri) pot fi plasate în secolul al XVII-lea. Ulterior, graţie în special corifeilor "Şcolii ardelene" şi reprezentanţilor "curentului latinist", vocabularul limbii române s-a îmbogăţit cu un număr apreciabil de neologisme, luate direct din latină pe cale livrescă. Aceste neologisme trebuie deosebite cu grijă de cuvintele pe care le-am moştenit din aceeaşi limbă şi care, datorită vechimii lor foarte mari, au evoluat mult din punct de vedere fonetic şi chiar semantic. Astfel, lat. *clarus* a fost o dată moştenit şi a dat *chiar*, iar a doua oară a fost împrumutat ca neologism, în secolul al XIX-lea şi a dat *clar*. Tot aşa, lat. *salutare* are, în limba română, un continuator direct, care este vechiul verb *săruta*, dar şi un corespondent neologic *a saluta*. Cuvintele care provin, în ultimă analiză, din acelaşi etimon, dar pe căi diferite, şi care sînt mai mult ori mai puţin diferenţiate din punct de vedere formal şi semantic poartă numele de "dublete etimologice". La exemplele citate mai pot fi adăugate următoarele perechi al căror prim element este moştenit, iar al doilea împrumutat din latină: *des-dens, drept-direct, frupt-fruct, pricepe-percepe, băşică-vezică, femeie-familie, subţire-subtil, bătrîn-veteran* ş.a.m.d. Faptul că *dens, familie, veteran* etc. ne-au putut veni şi din franceză sau italiană nu are prea mare importanţă, întrucît originea lor ultimă este tot latină.

9.2 O altă influenţă modernă, care s-a exercitat asupra limbii române cu precădere în domeniul art [illegible] este cea italiană. Îndeosebi terminologia noastră muzicală cunoaşte u[illegible] număr de cuvinte pe care le datorăm acestei limbi, dar pe care nu le mai cităm, deoarece ele au, în general, un caracter internaţional (cf.: *andante, crescendo, piano* etc.). Tot limbii italiene îi datorăm, printre altele, o mulţime de cuvinte din domeniul economico-financiar (spre exemplu: *cambie, casă* (de bani), *casier, contabil, falit, gir, gira, scont, scadent, scadenţă, valută, virament* etc.)

9.3 Regional precum şi la nivelul limbii literare s-a exercitat asupra românei influenţa germană, care e mai veche şi mai accentuată în Transilvania. Privită în ansamblu, această influenţă cunoaşte foarte multe aspecte pe care le putem cel mult aminti. E vorba de influenţa şvabilor din Banat, de aceea a saşilor din Transilvania şi de influenţa pe care au exercitat-o nemţii stabiliţi la noi ca mineri, negustori şi îndeosebi industriaşi. La acestea trebuie adăugată influenţa germană determinată de contactul cu civilizaţia apuseană din Austria şi, desigur, cea exercitată prin intermediul cărţilor, adică pe cale cultă. Neputînd trece în revistă toate domeniile în care s-a făcut simţită influenţa germană, ne vom mulţumi cu constatarea că ea a lăsat cele mai serioase urme în terminologia tehnico-ştiinţifică (de exemplu: *bormaşină, cocs, diesel, duză, fasung, feldspat, glaspapir, rolă, şaibă, şină, şpalt, ştecăr, valţ, wolfram* şi multe altele.

9.4 Dintre toate influenţele care s-au exercitat asupra românei în epoca modernă, cea franceză ocupă, indiscutabil, locul de frunte. Se poate spune că numai în secolul trecut limba română a împrumutat din franceză cîteva mii de cuvinte, îmbogăţindu-şi şi modernizîndu-şi vocabularul în toate domeniile vieţii materiale şi spirituale. Termenii noştri *politici, administrativi, economici, juridici, culturali* şi *ştiinţifici* sînt în majoritatea lor de origine franceză ori au o etimologie multiplă (în primul rînd franţuzească). Cele mai multe cuvinte pe care le-am primit din franceză sînt împrumuturi făcute pe cale cultă sau livrescă. Spre această concluzie ne conduce şi faptul că multe neologisme au fost împrumutate sub forma lor scrisă, nu aşa cum se pronunţă ele în franceză. Astfel noi rostim *automobil* (nu *otomobil*) şi tot aşa: *bacalaureat, certificat, centimă, convoi, mercerie, pension, sergent, septicemie, vermicid* etc.

9.5 În secolul al XX-lea şi mai ales în ultimele decenii, vocabularul românesc a continuat să se îmbogăţească în mod considerabil, ca o consecinţă a progresului tehnico-ştiinţific, a avîntului şi diversificării vieţii culturale şi a contactului dintre poporul român şi alte popoare. Unele dintre neologismele apărute în limba română după 23 August 1944 sînt, după cum se ştie, un produs al influenţei ruse moderne. Ceea ce este interesant de remarcat e că aceste neologisme sînt constituite, în general, din rădăcini şi elemente formative de origine latină (spre exemplu: *activist, cursant, desant, exponat, instructaj, magistrală, procuratură, radioficaţie,* şi altele, care pot fi găsite în dicţionare).

9.6 Pentru a avea o imagine cît mai generală asupra vocabularului neologic românesc, e necesar să adăugăm cîteva cuvinte despre influenţa engleză actuală. Încă din secolul al XIX-lea, româna a început să împrumute o serie de termeni englezeşti (în special sportivi) aproape exclusiv prin intermediul francezei şi, mult mai rar, al limbii germane. În deceniile V şi VI ale secolului nostru, aceeaşi influenţă s-a manifestat, măcar în parte, şi prin intermediul rusei, care ne-a transmis îndeosebi termeni tehnici de origine anglo-americană (de pildă: *buldozer, combină, conveier, radiolocaţie, screper* etc.). În etapa actuală, mai mult decît oricînd, influenţa engleză se exercită asupra limbii române direct, multilateral şi din ce în ce mai puternic. În ordine strict alfabetică, cităm doar cîteva exemple de "anglicisme" care aparţin celor mai diverse sfere de activitate şi pe care le regăsim în multe limbi de cultură şi civilizaţie: *building, computer, cow-boy, dispecer, escalator, fair-play, living-room, marketing, pipe-line, radar, show, star, stress, transplant, week-end, western* etc. Cîteva dintre aceste aşa-zise anglicisme nici măcar nu sînt înregistrate în dicţionarele româneşti, însă ele apar frecvent în stilul publicistic şi în cel ştiinţific, care au fost şi vor rămîne întotdeauna cele mai bogate în neologisme.

BIBLIOGRAFIE: Sextil Puşcariu, *op. cit.*, p.364 şi urm.; Iorgu Iordan, *Limba română contemporană* (ediţia a II-a), Bucureşti, 1956, p. 67-73 şi 80-86; N. A. Ursu, *Formarea terminologiei ştiinţifice româneşti*, Bucureşti, 1962; Theodor Hristea, *Împrumuturi şi creaţii lexicale neologice în limba română contemporană*, în LR, an. XXI (1972), nr. 3, p. 185-200.

X. Consideraţii finale

10.0 Din întreaga noastră expunere rezultă, mai întîi, că româna e o limbă de origine latină prin structura ei gramaticală şi prin vocabularul fundamental. Acest lucru este atît de adevărat, încît, în româneşte, nu e posibil să construim măcar o propoziţie, oricît de simplă ar fi ea, folosind exclusiv elemente lexicale şi flexionare de alta origine decît cea latină. În schimb, putem construi fraze întregi dintre cele mai complicate, utilizînd numai material lexical şi flective moştenite din limba latină.

În raport cu celelalte idiomuri romanice, limba română prezintă interes prin inovaţiile ei interne, prin ceea ce a păstrat numai ea din latină şi în special prin ceea ce a asimilat din numeroasele limbi neromanice cu care a venit în contact.

Influenţele suferite în domeniul vocabularului ca şi izolarea în care s-a dezvoltat timp de aproape 1000 de ani nu au alterat esenţa latină a limbii române, însă au influenţat fizionomia ei lexicală pînă într-atît, încît i-au asigurat un loc aparte printre celelalte limbi neolatine.

După reluarea contactului cu romanitatea occidentală, româna şi-a îmbogăţit vocabularul cu un număr impresionant de neologisme, dintre care foarte multe sînt (ori tind să devină) ceea ce ne-am obişnuit să numim cuvinte "internaţionale".

Este de remarcat că majoritatea neologismelor româneşti sînt, în ultimă analiză, de origine latină, deşi ele ne-au venit, de obicei, din franceză şi, mai rar, din italiană, germană, rusă etc. Aceasta fiind situaţia, se poate spune că chiar unele împrumuturi neologice din limbile occidentale sau din rusă au contribuit indirect la consolidarea caracterului latin al limbii române.

Ceea ce vom sublinia încă o dată în legătură cu neologismele româneşti este că o bună parte dintre ele provin din surse multiple, întrucît româna a fost influenţată concomitent sau la distanţă în timp şi în spaţiu de mai multe limbi de cultură şi civilizaţie. Precum vedem, mult discutata eterogenitate a lexicului românesc în ansamblu se verifică din plin chiar în sectorul său neologistic.

BIBLIOGRAFIE GENERALĂ: C. Daicoviciu, Em. Petrovici, Gh. Ştefan, *La formation du peuple roumain et de sa langue,* Bucurest, 1963; S. Puşcariu, *Études de linguistique roumaine,* Cluj, 1937; Alexandru Graur, *The Romance Character of Romanian,* Bucharest, 1967; Alexandru Niculescu, *Individualitatea limbii române între limbile romanice. Contribuţii gramaticale,* Bucureşti, 1965. Theodor Hristea, *Probleme de etimologie, Bucureşti,* 1968.